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PARENTAL FRUSTRATION AS RELATED TO PARENTAL AGGRESSION

by

BRENDA E. MUNRO

A THESIS

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Abstract

Past investigators of the frustration-aggression theory have been primarily interested in examining responses to extreme and sudden frustrators. As well, studies of the relationship between frustration and parental behaviour has focused on abusive parental acts. In contrast the main emphasis in this study was on the relationships between subtle, enduring frustrators and the frequency of more aggressive forms of verbal and physical parental discipline. A sample of 63 fathers and 63 mothers, who were members of intact families in Edmonton, Alberta were used. The variables that were related most consistently to frequency of parental aggressive discipline were the number of frustrators being experienced, lack of dyadic consensus and the age of the child. In addition, lack of dyadic consensus, lack of a feeling of well-being, discussion of breaking up the marital relationship, perceiving children as a blockage to couple closeness, parental education and dissatisfaction with the neighbourhood were significantly related in some cases.

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Table of Contents

Chapter	Page
I. Purpose	1
II. Literature Review	7
A. Stress and Frustration	7
B. Child Discipline	18
C. Child Abuse	25
D. Summary	29
III. Frustration Aggression Theory	32
A. Propositions	38
B. Summary	58
IV. Methodology	60
A. Sample	60
B. Instruments	62
C. Data analysis	80
D. Limitations	83
V. Results	87
VI. Discussion	123
Appendix A	138
Appendix B	148
Bibliography	181

List of Tables

Table	Description	Page
1	Varimax Orthogonal Factor Analysis of Aggresion Variables.	66
2	Item by Item and Item by Total Correlation of Aggression Variables.	67
3	Varimax Orthogonal Factor Analysis of Dyadic Consensus Variables.	72
4	Item by Item and Item by Total Correlation of Dyadic Consensus Variables.	73
5	Varimax Orthogonal Factor Analysis of Well-Being Variables.	76
6	Item by Item and Item by Total Correlation of Well-Being Variable.	77
7	Multiple Regression Summary of Structural Variables and the Father's Frustration Index as Related to the Frequency of the Father's Physical Disciplinary Aggression.	92
8	Multiple Regression Summary of Structural Variables and the Father's Frustration Index as Related to the Frequency of the Father's Verbal Disciplinary Aggression.	93
9	Multiple Regression Summary of Structural Variables and the Mother's Frustration Index as Related to the Frequency of the Mother's Physical Disciplinary Aggression.	94
10	Multiple Regression Summary of Structural Variables and the Mother's Frustration Index as Related to the Frequency of the Mother's Verbal Disciplinary Aggression.	95
11	Multiple Regression Summary of Intra-Family Dissatisfiers as Related to the Frequency of Paternal Physically Aggressive Discipline.	99
12	Multiple Regression Summary of Intra-Family Dissatisfiers as Related to the Frequency of Paternal Verbally Aggressive Discipline.	100
13	Multiple Regression Summary of Intra-Family Dissatisfiers as Related to the Frequency of Maternal Physically Aggressive Discipline.	101

14	Multiple Regression Summary of Intra-Family Dissatisfiers as Related to the Frequency of Maternal Verbally Aggressive Discipline.	102
15	Multiple Regression Summary of Life Dissatisfiers as Related to the Frequency of Paternal Physically Aggressive Discipline.	106
16	Multiple Regression Summary of Life Dissatisfiers as Related to the Frequency of Paternal Verbally Aggressive Discipline.	107
17	Multiple Regression Summary of Life Dissatisfiers as Related to the Frequency of Maternal Physically Aggressive Discipline.	108
18	Multiple Regression Summary of Life Dissatisfiers as Related to the Frequency of Maternal Verbally Aggressive Discipline.	109
19	Multiple Regression Summary of Individual Dissatisfiers as Related to the Frequency of Paternal Physically Aggressive Discipline.	111
20	Multiple Regression Summary of Individual Dissatisfiers as Related to the Frequency of Paternal Verbally Aggressive Discipline.	112
21	Multiple Regression Summary of Individual Dissatisfiers as Related to the Frequency of Maternal Physically Aggressive Discipline.	113
22	Multiple Regression Summary of Individual Dissatisfiers as Related to the Frequency of Maternal Physically Aggressive Discipline.	114

List of Figures

Figure	Description	Page
1	The Relationship of Frustrators to the Frequency of Parental Aggressive Discipline.	59
2	Frequency of Paternal Physical Disciplinary Aggression as Related to Frustration (Summary).	119
3	Frequency of Paternal Verbal Disciplinary Aggression as Related to Frustration (Summary).	120
4	Frequency of Maternal Physical Disciplinary Aggression as Related to Frustration (Summary).	121
5	Frequency of Maternal Verbal Disciplinary Aggression as Related to Frustration (Summary).	122

I. Purpose

Recently, there has been a sharp increase in research relating to child abuse. In 1968, for example, the book by Helfer and Kempe was the only major source of information. In 1974, 138 references were listed in the National Institute of Mental Health bibliography. By 1975, Gelles estimated that published articles relating to child abuse had multiplied ten-fold. A majority of these studies have emphasized the influence of parental experiences, attitudes and characteristics in the use of severe physical punishment.

While researchers of child abuse have considered parental characteristics, the study of child discipline has been primarily structural in nature. For example, it has been found that disciplinary procedures, especially more aggressive (i.e. physical and verbal) forms of discipline, vary typically by size of family and social class (Rollins & Thomas, 1979; Steinmetz, 1979; Straus, Gelles & Steinmetz, 1980). There is however a paucity of research investigating the characteristics of parents utilizing aggressive disciplinary techniques.

As will be expanded later in this paper, the type of parental discipline used by the parent has an important impact on the the child's behaviour.'

'(e.g. Becker, 1970; Healey, 1974; Johnson, 1974; Dielman & Cattell, 1972; Weiss, 1965; Altman, 1973; Mannino, 1973; Swan, 1970; Kagan & Moss, 1962; Yarrow et al., 1968; Armentrout, 1971; Sears, 1961; Burton et al, 1961; Fodor, 1973; Stantrock, 1973; Rollins & Thomas, 1979; Craig, 1966; Harris, 1965; Margo & Hanson, 1969; Mischler & Waxler, 1968;

However little is known about the frustration or stress level of the parent or parents doing the disciplining. Thus the objective of this study is to gain a greater understanding of the parents who are utilizing aggressive forms of child discipline.

Increasingly the family, rather than the individual is being seen as the basic unit in health care delivery (Green, 1982). According to Green (1982:11), in assessing family stress, four categories are central, these include: 1) family structure - the relationship or organization of the component parts of a family 2) family interaction - the type of interaction and the individual's assessment of their relationships with other family members, 3) family/community interplay - the interrelationship of the family with the community, and, 4) family health behaviours - behaviours used to maintain and promote the family's health and to respond to maturational crisis situations.

Green discriminates between what she terms major and minor life event stressors. Major life event stressors are (1982:12) "events considered to be family milestones"... events which usually "cause considerable disruption in the family's equilibrium and usually catalyze a state of crisis" (e.g. birth or death of a close family member, marriage, moving, job loss, serious illness). These major stressors have been studied quite extensively (e.g. Parad & Caplan, 1965; Rappoport, 1965; Umana, 1980; Holmes & Rache, 1967).

'(cont'd)Loeb, 1973)

Minor life event stressors are more common and predictable for example traffic tickets, disagreements, dissatisfactions, and childhood illnesses. As well, Moen (1979) has dichotomized stressors into two broad categories: 1) stress events that are sudden change or transition (acute) and 2) enduring or chronic stressors (long term). Long term types of stressors or what have been termed frustration (Farrington, 1980), such as lack of marital and family happiness, dissatisfaction with self, neighbourhood, health, friends and job will be investigated in the present study.

Thus the purpose of this thesis is to critically examine the role of parental frustration, one aspect of parental experience, as related to frequency of aggressive forms of discipline. The parental frustration variable is being used because it has recurrently been found to be related to more abusive forms of behaviour by parents. [2] Therefore, the frustration-aggression hypothesis will be tested for the parentchild relationship (parental frustration as related to frequency of aggressive parental discipline).

It is not the author's purpose to suggest that frustration is the only variable associated with frequency of parental aggression. Past investigations have found that variables such as the physical and emotional well-being of

---

[2] (e.g. Milner & Wimberly, 1979; Gill, 1970;1976; Walters, 1975; Straus et al, 1980)

the individual, and learned interaction skills[3] are important predictors of frequency of parental aggression. However, only the frustration-aggression hypothesis will be tested in this study.

Because of the secondary nature of the data set used, it is not possible to investigate all forms of objective frustration. Based on the work which has been done by Holmes and Rache (1967) it would seem that sudden and extreme forms of frustration (e.g. the death of a close family member,divorce,job loss) are potent in affecting the physical and emotional well-being of the individual. The nature of the data precluded the use of such variables.

There is a paucity of research on the effects of more subtle and enduring (i.e. long term) forms of frustration on the aggressiveness of the individual. This is not to say that extreme forms of frustration cannot be enduring or chronic. However, only minor enduring or chronic forms of frustration will be investigated. It is thus being argued that chronic types of less powerful forms of frustration influence the individuals responses.

Thus the frustration-aggression theory is emphasized using long term rather than sudden frustrating experiences. Four relationships are to be investigated based on the frustration-aggression theory for individuals, these include: 1) frustration as related to frequency of father's

---

[3](e.g. see reviews: Steinmetz, 1979; Straus, Gelles & Steinmetz, 1980)

physical aggression 2) frustration as related to the frequency of father's **verbal aggression** 3) frustration as related to the frequency of mother's **physical aggression** 4) frustration as related to the frequency of mother's **verbal aggression**. The rational for these divisions will be discussed later in the paper.

This study is based on data collected from respondents in a randomly selected sample of households in the City of Edmonton, Alberta. The 1980 Edmonton Area Survey focused on a comprehensive examination of marriage and family life issues. One of the innovative features of this project was to obtain responses from both husbands and wives, resulting in a subsample of 179 couples. The importance of obtaining data from several members of the family has been well established in both theory and research (cf. Hill, 1971; Laraon, 1974; Cromwell & Peterson, 1981).

This thesis is the first stage in analyzing this important data base relating to parental aggression. The purpose in this particular study is to examine the relationships between maternal frustration and aggression, and paternal frustration and aggression. In doing so, the traditional arguments concerning aggressive discipline can be carefully examined in a Canadian context. Follow-up research in subsequent papers will examine the marital system patterns in aggressive families, such as families where both the mother and father experience frequent stressors, compared to families where the father does but

the mother does not.

In order to gain an understanding of the state of the literature related to frequency of parental aggressive discipline, this investigation will begin with a review of the **relevant literature** in the following general areas: 1) stress and frustration 2) child discipline and 3) child abuse. This review of literature will be followed by a discussion of the frustration - aggression theory and it's applicability to the study of parental aggressive discipline. Propositions will then be derived based on the empirical and theoretical evidence of relationships. Within the methodology section the sample will be described, criterion and predictor variables operationalized and a rational will be given for the selection of particular statistical methods. Next the results of the investigation will be given followed by a discussion of the results, limitations and possible future direction in parental aggressive discipline research.

II. Literature Review

A. Stress and Frustration

The problems of defining frustration and stress will be addressed in this chapter. Although very little research has been done assessing the relationship between frustration or stress and frequency of parental discipline, areas of frustration and stress research associated with an understanding of parental aggressive discipline will be discussed. Stress is an ambiguous concept which in the past has been difficult to define and operationalize. Janis (1951;1958), who did much of the original research in this area, has defined stress as the emotional-psychophysiological state of an individual or organism occurring in situational context, involving stimuli which are cues to elicit fear or anxiety responses. It should be noted however, that not all responses are emotional in nature (i.e. fear and anxiety), but may also be physiological or behavioral (Cannon, 1932; Selye, 1956; Baron, 1977). Tanner (1976:7), gives a broader perspective of stress by defining it as, "any action or situation that places special physical or psychological demands upon a person - anything that can unbalance his individual equilibrium."

Conceptually the manner in which stress and frustration should be investigated has not been clear. As cited by Farrington (1980) stress has been approached in primarily

three ways: 1) as a stimulus which is objectively threatening or disruptive, 2) as a response or a group of responses related to the stimulus or as 3) the actual physiological state of the individual or animal experiencing the stimulus. The response to frustration is the primary concern within this investigation.

One source of stress which is frequently investigated is change. Some examples of stressful situations involving change include: role reorganization and adjustment factors due to change within family units and groups (e.g. Boulding, 1950; Meyerowitz & Kaplan, 1967; Farber, Jenne & Romolo, 1960; Harrison, 1977), disasters, consentation camp internment (e.g. Wallace, 1956; Frankle, 1973), loss of status (e.g. Rahe et al, 1964), bereavement (e.g. Caudill, 1958; Coates, Moyer & Wellman, 1972) surgery (e.g. Cohen & Lazarus, 1973), unpleasant events, earthquakes, tornadoes and presidential assassinations (e.g. Dohrenwend, 1973).

Perhaps the most well known instrument used for assessing stress in the form of change, is the Social Readjustment Rating Scale (SRRS), which was developed by Holmes and Rahe (1967). These researchers through extensive investigation (i.e. 5000 interviews, study of medical records, professional opinions) weighted stressors according to physiological outcomes. For example, death of a spouse received a stress value of 100, while minor violations of the law received a stress value of 11. These authors suggest that an individual who accumulates 200 or more life change

units in the period of a year, is in risk of experiencing a serious mental or physical disorder. Of the top 15 crises in the SRRS list, ten were family events (i.e. death of spouse, divorce, marital separation, death of a close family member, marriage, marital reconciliation, change in health of family, pregnancy, sex difficulties, gain of a new family member), two were personal misfortunes (i.e. jail term, personal injury) and three deal with the individual's work (i.e. discharged from work, retirement, change of financial state).

While the SRRS scale has influenced the direction that stress and change research has taken, it is not void of disadvantages. For example, Hough et al. (1976) argues that the scale does not account for cultural variation, Hudgens (1974), suggests that the causal direction of some of the relationships (e.g. divorce) may not be known, and Dohrenwend (1974;1975) has identified certain combinations that are not additive (e.g. divorce and death of a spouse).

Stress as addressed in the context of the family has been viewed primarily with reference to change. Stress in family literature has been defined as "disequilibration" (Hansen & Hill, 1964;787), "an event that produces a change in the family social system" (Burr, 1973:201), and as ambiguity "acting in a changed situation" (Hansen & Johnson, 1979:585). Hansen and Hill discuss changes related to dismemberment, accession and demoralization while Burr refers to change in the system's boundaries, structure,

goals, processes, roles or values.

Stress however is not synonymous with change but rather includes other aspects such as: handicaps (e.g. Hewet, 1970; Newson & Newson, 1973; 1968), overcrowding, intrasystem population pressure on scarce resources, long-term imprisonment (e.g. Brown, 1974; Cohen & Taylor, 1972), blocked attainment of goals (e.g. Levine & Scotch, 1967), long-lasting preparedness for action which cannot be vented (Hamburg, 1961), role conflicts (e.g. Dodge & Martin, 1970), sensory deprivation (e,g, Lazarus, Tomila, Opton & Kodama, 1966), and non-traumatic but wearing events (Scott & Howard, 1970).

Frustration is another broad stress category which encompasses many of the change variables as well as many other stress variables. Frustration has traditionally been defined as the blocking or thwarting of one's goals; or the objects, persons or events preventing one from gratifying certain impulses (Baron, 1977; Berkowitz, 1962; 1969; Buss, 1961; Dollard et al, 1939). To expand on this definition it may be stated that frustration is the result of goal blocking situations (e.g. overcrowding, poverty), or dissatisfaction with situations where one's perceived or desired potential has not or cannot be achieved. Many life changes (e.g. divorce, jail term, death of a spouse, discharged from work, arguments with spouse, foreclosure of mortgage) are blockages to goal fulfillment and therefore are frustrating experiences. In a study of males, between

the ages of 20 and 60, Brichacek and Vaclav (1980) found that satisfaction and frustration are virtually inseparable. Suggesting that dissatisfaction with a situation may actually be a frustrating experience. Results indicated that life frustration culminates between the ages of 30 and 40 which highly correlated with a feeling of less satisfaction during the same time period. In another study, Milsik and Brichacek (1980) utilized frustration and dissatisfaction as synonymous when assessing the impact of personality factors. It has been suggested that dissatisfaction with a life situation is a blockage of the satisfaction goal and thus is frustration.

Thus frustration has been defined as a blockage of goal attainment, or, dissatisfaction with one's situation.[4] As Farrington (1980: 108) states "frustration seems to refer most often to an emotional state accompanied frequently by anger and anxiety, that may arise when an individual is prevented from attaining a desired goal". Frustrators may be objective or subjective in nature. Objective demands are actual situations which frequently result in frustrated responses, some of these situations are discussed later in this paper. For example within the literature poverty, and overcrowding have been found to be related to aggressive behavior (e.g. crime, delinquency, child abuse, suicide).

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[4](Berkowitz, 1962; 1969; Dollard, Doob, Miller, Mowrer & Sears, 1939;Buss, 1966; 1971; Baron, 1971a; 1971b; 1973; Farrington, 1975;1980)

Closely related and at times inseparable from objective demands are subjective demands. The issue in working with subjective demands is the individuals definition of the things he or she experiences. In essence what is being said then, is that "no stimulus is a frustrator to all individuals exposed to it"(Appley & Trumbull, 1967:7). For example Shibutani (1961:279) has stated, that before we will be able to understand an individual's behavior we must know "his definition of the situation". Lazarus (1974) and Haan (1977) suggest that unless we understand one's cognitive appraisals of a situation, it is difficult if not impossible to understand varying responses to change. Selye (1956) who originally took a non-cognitive approach to the study of stress, has more recently (1974) suggested that stressors may be positive or negative depending on psychological mediation. In a study of stress in Jackson America, Lauer and Lauer (1976:541) found that within the same situation cohabited fears, pathologies and "unbounded optimism and delicious anticipation." One decisive factor identified by these authors was the perceived desirability of the situation.

Frustration has traditionally been investigated using an experimental format, where through manipulation the subject is frustrated and responses to this frustration are recorded. For example, Rule and Percival (1971), as a part of their investigation, tested the relationship between goal blockage and aggressive responses. The subject's personal

motivation towards a goal was aroused by telling him that he would be judged according to his ability to teach a partner a list of nonsense syllables. Frustration was induced when the learners failed to learn the syllables. The teacher administered electric shocks to the learner as a punishment for errors, this act was an operational indication of the aggressiveness of the subject. These researchers found a significant relationship between goal blockage and aggressive behavior.

In contrast, Farrington (1980: 108) has defined frustration "as a second order problem springing from the failure to satisfactorily resolve a stress situation." This definition closely resembles Scott and Howards's (1970; Howard & Scott, 1965) definition of tension which refers to unresolved problems or stress situations. For example, many marital couples experience adjustment problems. Some of these couples through means such as counselling, problem solving skills, and other methods, rectify the maladjustment which exists between them. In other cases couples choose divorce, again solving the adjustment problem, only this time it is through the elimination of the problem situation. Couples may also become involved in physical or verbal battles thus showing that they realize that a problem exists. However while the couple recognizes that a problem exists they are not in any constructive way attempting to solve the problem but rather are only venting their emotions. In many cases the problem is simply ignored and is

left unresolved.

Scott and Howard (1970; Howard & Scott, 1965) have suggested that there are primarly three responses one can make to a stressful situation: 1) an assertive response - the couple would somehow solve the existing problem (e.g. through skills, divorce), 2) a divergent response - although the problem is recognized an inappropriate response is made, such as venting emotions, (e.g. beating their wife, husband or child) thus leaving the problem unsolved. and 3) an inert response - the problem is ignored and thus there is no attempt to solve the problem at hand. In the last two instances a frustrating situation would exist because the problem is left unresolved. As Scott and Howard state (1970:273): "In effect, failure in mastery requires the organism to use an excess of energy and resources in maintenance activities over what would have been required had mastery been achieved, and the necessity of excessive maintenance activity involves the organism in a state of continuous mobilization or tension."

While the two definitions of frustration just outlined may seem divergent there is consistency between them. Farrington (1980) sees frustration as related to more long term or enduring dissatisfaction with ones situation. Thus he discusses frustration as dissatisfaction or frustration arising from an unresolved stress situation. Howevever dissatisfaction is still a blockage to the goal of satisfaction with one's situation. While Farrington's

defintion of frustration is not inconsistent with the more traditional definitions, it deliniates only one type of frustration. Frustration, according to most defintions is not only unresolved stress or dissatisfaction but also can be related to sudden occurances or blockages, such as the loss of a job which would block the individual's future success with a company. Farrington's definition of frustration will be emphasized in the operationalization of frustration in the present study.

Researchers of stress and frustration have investigated primarily three types of responses: emotional, behavioral and physiological. Many researchers (e.g. Wolf & Wolff, 1943; Selye, 1956; 1974; Back & Bogdonall, 1964; Cannon, 1932; Oken, 1967; McNeil, 1970; Moss. 1973; House, 1974; LeShan, 1966) have found that changes in bodily functioning and even biologial problems (e.g. cardiovascular complications, peptic ulcers, muscular pain, vomiting, asthma, migraine headaches, cancer, premature delivery, heart attacks) are responses to stress.

Researchers of emotional response to stress have primarily investigated the range of response. For example, responses may range from annoyance to overpowering rage and fear, from amusement to ecstasy (e.g. Rappaport & Katkin, 1972).

The third response type (i.e. behavioural response) is the major focus of this investigation. Many researchers of stress and frustration have discussed behavioural symptoms.

Selye(1956) has specified many behavioural manifestations of stress such as the inability to concentrate, fatigue, tendency to cry, irritability, hypertension, depression, trembling, speech difficulties, insommnia, hyperdinesea (over activity), increased use of prescribed drugs, cigarettes and alcohol. Many of these behavioural responses are related to emotional and physiological responses.

One of the more frequently studied symptoms of stress or more specifically frustration, is aggression. Physical aggression has been defined as "any form of behavior directed toward the goal of harming or injuring another living being who is motivated to avoid such treatment"(Baron, 1977:7). The term behaviour here was not applied to emotion, motive, or attitude, as was true in some of the original aggression articles, but rather to actual behaviour (i.e. physical or verbal), exhibited by the aggressor. The phrase "directed toward the goal of harming or injuring another human being" implies that physical damage is not essential. It is only expected that some type of adverse consequences would be experienced by the recipient. Thus it is not only physical assaults which would be classified as aggression but also verbal aggression or symbolically hurting or harming another.

However aggression is not always directed at the source of frustration, but may be redirected towards others not directly associated with the frustrating situation. As stated by Dollard et al. (1939: 39) "The strongest

instigation, aroused by frustration, is to acts of aggression directed against the agent perceived to be the source of frustration and progressively weaker instigations are aroused to progressively less direct acts of aggression." Frequently aggression towards the instigator of frustration may be inhibited due to a fear of retaliation or punishment for such behaviour. For example, it has been found in many child abuse studies, that the individuals most often struck in frustrating situations are the smallest and weakest members of the family (Blumberg, 1964; Bronfenbrenner, 1958; Erlanger,1974b; Stark & McEvoy, 1970). Through his development of a scientific model to examine the occurrence of displaced aggression, Miller (1948) stimulated much empirical research (e.g. Berkowitz, 1969; Fenigstein & Buss, 1974; Thibaut & Coules, 1952). One aspect emphasized by Miller is the strength of inhibition against aggressive behaviour towards the source of frustration as an anticedent to displaced aggression. Dollard et al. (1939) found that aggressive behaviour is primarily inhibited by the threat of punishment. It may be argued that a child is the ideal recipient of aggressive behaviour, because of lack of retaliation rights and or abilities. Thus aggression displacement would be viewed as aggression against persons other than the frustrator who hold less or weaker threat of punishment. It is primarily in extreme cases (i.e. child abuse or child murder) where negative sanction or punishment would be administered to the aggressing parent. The

frustrated parent may however participate in aggressive behaviour as frequently as is needed for catharsis, as long as the discipline is not too severe (i.e. abusive).

In summary, frustration is one form of stress defined as a blockage of goal fulfillment related to sudden change or enduring dissatisfaction. Responses to frustration vary from solving the problem to several forms of disfunctional behaviours such as withdrawal, irritability, hyperkinesea, crying and increased aggressiveness to name only a few. The emphasis in this study is on more aggressive forms of responses. At times, it is not possible to vent frustration towards the frustrator, and thus frustration may be directed against individuals who have little or no ability or right to punish the frustrated individual. It has been found that these weaker individuals are frequently children. However, it is difficult if not impossible to determine the true motive of parents in child discipline. Within the next section, types and reasons for child discipline will be discussed.

B. Child Discipline

Within North American society, various forms of discipline have been utilized in parent-child relationships including, verbal aggression, physical punishment or aggression, positive and negative love oriented techniques (i.e. withdrawal of love), deprivation of privileges,

tangible rewards, rejection and ridicule.[5] Only two aggressive forms of discipline, physical and verbal aggression were considered in the present study.

Physical punishment of children by parents has been labeled in a variety of ways by researchers. For example, the same disciplinary act of spanking a child has been labeled coercion (e.g. Rollins & Thomas, 1979), physical punishment (e.g. Steinmetz, 1979) and violence (e.g. Straus, Gelles & Steinmetz, 1980). All of these terms however, refer to the physical or behavioural aggression of a parent towards a child for some reason. Physical or behavioural aggression has been defined as acts in which the aggressor intends to harm or hurt the victim (Baron, 1977). Usually when behavioural aggression is utilized in parent-child relationships it is seen as an appropriate and effective means of socialization (Straus, Gelles & Steinmetz, 1980).

Parental aggression need not always be physical however, as aggression may also be verbal in nature (Buss, 1961; Baron, 1977; Straus, Gelles & Steinmetz, 1980). Verbal aggression has been defined as verbal statements which symbolically hurt the other (Baron, 1977). Examples of verbal aggression in the parent-child relationship would be arguing, scolding, yelling and screaming. Both of these forms (i.e. verbal and behavioral) of aggression will be considered in the present study.

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[5]For a review of discipline methods, see Steinmetz(1979)

Studies of child discipline have taken primarily two forms; 1) the investigation of the effects on children and 2) the study of key structural variables associated with various forms of discipline.

It has consistently been found that the method of child discipline used by a parent is associated with the child's behaviour. Various disciplinary techniques have been found to have positive or negative effects on the child's aggressive behaviours (e.g. Winder & Rau, 1962; Becker et. al., 1962; Sears, 1961; Yarrow et. al., 1968) dependency (Baumrind & Black, 1967; Kagan & Moss, 1962; Yarrow et. al., 1968), internal locus of control (e.g. Burton, Maccoby & Allinsmith, 1961; Fodor, 1973; Santrock, 1973), self esteem (e.g. Comstock, 1973; Thomas et al., 1974; Toto, 1973), behavioural problems (e.g. Dielman & Cattall, 1972; Weiss, 1965), schizophrenia (e.g. Craig, 1966; Harris, 1965; Margo & Hanson, 1969; Mischler & Waxler, 1968) and academic achievement (e.g.Barton, Dielman & Cattel, 1974; Becker, 1970; Healey, 1974; Johnson, 1974) to list but a few of the areas researched. Based on these data it may be suggested that the study of factors associated with variant forms of child discipline is important.

Several key structural variables have been identified as having a significant influence on the type of child discipline implemented including; family type (e.g. single versus two parent families), size of family, age of children, age of parents, sex of child, birth order, social

class, whether children were conceived by parental choice, aid with household duties and discipline history (Straus, 1971; Steinmetz, 1971; 1974; Mulligan, 1977; Straus, Gelles & Steinmetz, 1980; Baken, 1971; Radbill, 1974; Newberger et al., 1977; De Mause, 1974; 1975).

Physical aggression, or family violence, as labeled by Gelles and Straus (1979) has been defined according to legitimacy and instrumentality. Legitimacy refers to the use of physical force because it is approved of or required by societal norms. For example Straus, Gelles and Steinmetz (1980), in a study of parental violence in the United States, found that a majority of individuals felt that it was necessary, normal and good to slap or spank a twelve year old child.

Physical discipline is further dichotomized into instrumental and expressive, Expressive violence is a catharsis, thus the individual would strike out in response to feelings of stress or frustration. Conversely, instrumental violence is a form of socialization, where inappropriate behaviours are punished, or physical coersion is used to induce the other person to carry out or refrain from some act.

Neither of these variables are truly dichotomous however, but rather may be seen as two continua (i.e. illegitimate versus legitimate and instrumental versus expressive). Legitimacy is dependent upon the individual's orientation, formed largely by the culture and social strata

of which he is a part. For example, it has been found that lower socio-economic groups use more physical punishment than do middle or upper socio-economic groups. More extreme forms of discipline (e.g. beating, using a knife or gun), often called child abuse, are seen as an illegitimate form of discipline by a majorty of the American population (Straus, Gelles & Steinmetz, 1980). Child abuse represents one end of the continuum characterized by punishment such as beating a child with a closed fist or a lethal weapon, burning a child with a lit cigarette or even killing a child (i.e. illegitimate discipline). At the opposite end of the continuum is infrequent purposive punishment (to stop a child from running into the path of an oncoming car) which is almost universally accepted by the American population (i.e. legitimate discipline).

As cited by Norton (1977), when children exhibit inappropriate behaviour, parents frequently try to explain to children how and why their behaviour should change. This is especially true among the middle and upper socio-economic groups. However if this approach is ineffectual it is necessary for the parent to become more verbally or physically aggressive in order to deter misbehaviour. In these cases aggression by the parent is used when talking fails to change the child's behaviour (instrumental). Aggression can also be used in place of reasoning with the child, but again for the purpose of deterring misbehaviour. This is more often the case among lower socio-economic

groups or in dealing with young children. As Norton states (1977:46): "Punishment, defined technically, is doing something to the child immediately following his behaviour which reduces the likelihood that the child's behavior will be repeated."

Thus much aggressive discipline may be operant (instrumental) conditioning, where the parent utilizes negative reinforcement or punishment (physical and verbal aggression) in order to shape or change the behaviour of the child. Therefore, in an attempt to avoid an unpleasant or potentially painful situation, the child is motivated to conform, at least temporarily, to the wishes of his or her parents.

There are however a diversity of opinions about when infrequent purposive physical punishment becomes child abuse. In most cases instrumental and expressive reasons for aggressive discipline are not distinct and elements of both are present in physical and verbal disciplinary acts. This means that the parent may not only be socializing the child (instrumental discipline), but also venting his or her own anger (expressive discipline) or the parent who is merely venting anger (expressive discipline) may be rationalizing this behaviour as an attempt to socialize the child. Another consideration is that expressive responses by parents are inevitable and produce a socializing experience. That is, the child learns what makes people mad, what hurts, what is embarrassing via the the expressive responses of others. It

is only when children are punished too severely, too frequently, or for no reason that expressive reasons for discipline become dangerous or abusive to the child. There probably are times however, when children are punished for no reason or times when children are punished without emotional feelings because parents think that punishment is in the child's best interest.

While structural correlates of discipline and effects of variant forms of discipline have been studied, there is a paucity of research investigating the characteristics of parents utilizing especially aggressive forms of discipline. The purpose of this thesis was to determine if frustration experienced by the parent is displaced on the child in the form of frequent aggressive discipline. Within the child abuse area it has been found that various individual characteristics and situations are associated with child abuse. As was previously suggested child abuse and child discipline may actually located on the same continuum and may thus share some predictor variables. For this reason the portion of child abuse literature addressing the issue of characteristics and situations, more specifically stress and frustration, associated with abusing and non-abusing parents will be reviewed.

Many factors influence the type of discipline used by a parent such as family type, size, education of parents, whether the mother conceived by choice and age of children. Aggressive forms of discipline (i.e. verbal or physical) are

viewed by most people in our society as an acceptable and normal means of socialization. Thus, according to societal norms, aggressive forms of discipline are legitimate, unless too severe (e.g. beating, shooting) in which case rather then being called discipline the aggression is called abuse or illegitimate discipline. Similarly, there are different motives for parental aggressive discipline. Expressive discipline is a form of catharsis or venting while instrumental discipline is goal oriented and more related to socialization. Researchers have found that in some cases, frustration increases the frequency of expressive behaviour. Several researchers of abuse have found a significant relationship between frustration or stress and illegitimate or abusive parental aggression. While abuse is not the focus of this study it has been argued that legitimate and illegitimate forms of aggression may actually be on opposing ends of the same continuum. Some of the studies relating frustration or stress and aggressive illegitimate discipline will be reviewed in the next section.

C. Child Abuse

Perhaps the major criticism of many of the studies of the psychological parameters associated with child abuse is the small number of cases generally investigated. For example, each of the following studies included 20 or fewer subjects: Bender, 1976 - 2 subjects; Flynn, 1970 - 2 subjects; Medvecky & Kafka, 1972 - 10 subjects; Taipale,

Moren, Pihan & Valanne, 1974 - 1 subject; Kirkpatrick, 1976 - 20 subjects. Thus generalizations made from these small samples are unreliable. Many other child abuse studies have an adequate number of cases but have not considered the psychological aspects of child abuse (e.g. Corey, Miller & Widlak, 1975; Steele & Pollock, 1968). Recently however, there have been a few more representative and comprehensive investigations of parental personality and attitudes, as related to the etiology of child abuse (e.g. Spinetta, 1978; Burgess & Conger, 1978).

One of the most extensive reviews of the psychological aspects of child abuse was made by Spinetta & Rigler (1972), who list 88 references. Based on this review and further research Spinetta (1978) selected variables which were analyzed via varimax rotated factor analysis, yielding six high abuse potential categories. The six resultant clusters were: "a) relationship to one's own parents b) tendency to become upset and angry c) tendency toward isolation and loneliness d) expectations of one's own children e) inability to separate parental and child feelings and f) fear of external threat and control" (p. 1411). These categories closely resemble categories identified by Helfer, Schneider & Hoffmeister (1977).

Evidence indicates that parental stress is an important variable in relation to child abuse. The violent control of children, for example, is more common among parents who are socially and economically deprived (Gil, 1970;1976). Milner

and Wimberly (1979), in their review of child abuse literature, found several stress-related personality traits to be evident including: "inadequate child rearing attitudes and expectations, anxiety over a child's behaviour, problems in interpersonal relationships, feelings of inadequacy, feelings of isolation and loneliness, depression, vulnerability, insecurity, inability to handle stress, rigid attitudes, impulsivity, dependency, immaturity, negative childhood experiences including abuse and neglect and problems in parental relationships" (p. 95). In most of these cases there was some type of blockage which would produce frustration, that is, blockage of good parent child relationships, blocked interpersonal relationships with other family members and individuals outside of the family, blockage of personal goals because of psychological inadequacies. Based on their review, Milner and Wimberly developed a Child Abuse Potential Inventory. Through factor analysis, three factors, loneliness, rigidity and problems were compared using t-tests. The discriminating significance was lowest for loneliness and greatest for the rigidity and problem dimensions, indicating that abusive parents were more often rigid and/or had problems. The problem dimension was characterized by feelings of dissatisfaction or stress associated with self, family, and friends such as: poor sex life, headaches, family problems, not having close friends in the neighborhood, negative outlook and feeling unattractive.

These findings are consistent with typologies of child abusers, where stress or more specifically frustration has consistently been identified as a source of aggression towards children. For example, Merrill (1962) found that fathers who were frustrated due to physical disability or inability to support their families were one type of child abuser. Gil (1970) identified couple quarreling (i.e. stress within the parent's relationship) and reality stress as precipitants of abusive behaviour. Walters (1975) suggests that one type of child abuser is the frustrated individual who displaces aggression through child abuse. This type of child abuser is consistent with one of Boisvert's (1972) categories, which is the displacement of frustration in the form of aggression towards children.

Thus one type of stress, frustration, is frequently discussed in child abuse literature. As previously discussed, frustration has traditionally been defined as the blocking of one's goals, or as used in psychology, preventing one from gratifying certain impulses. Baron (1977: 7) has defined frustration as "the blocking or thwarting of some ongoing, goal-directed behavior."

Straus et al. (1980) listed eighteen potential stressor events which were thought to influence a parent's abusive behaviour towards his or her children. All of the identified stressor events could be identified as frustration events, as all involve the blockage of some type of goal (e.g. trouble with boss, trouble with other people at work, laid

off or fired from work, arrested or convicted for something serious, death of someone I felt close to, foreclosure of mortgage or loan, pregnant or having a child born, serious sickness or injury, serious problems with health or behaviour of family member, sexual difficulties, in-law troubles, much worse off financially, separated or divorced, a big increase in the number of arguments with husband/wife/partner, big increase in hours worked or responsibilities on the job, moved to a different neighborhood or town, child kicked out of school or suspended, and child caught doing something illegal). These researchers found that the rate of child abuse was much higher for those who reported higher numbers of these problems. Thus abuse was associated with frequency of frustrating events.

Child abuse researchers, for the most part, have been concerned with the severity of behavioural aggression inflicted on the child. As Spinetta (1978) states, frequency is also an important consideration. Thus differences may exist between parents who frequently use legitimate aggression and those who use legitimate aggression infrequently or not at all.

D. Summary

In this chapter it has been emphasized that frustration, defined as dissatisfaction or goal blockage, is one form of stress which may produce aggressive forms of

behaviour. The response one has to frustration varies due to individual temperament, past experience and learning. However what is of interest in the present investigation are behavioural responses rather than emotional or physiological responses. A number of researchers have pointed out that it is not only one frustrating experience which may influence the individuals aggressive behaviour but also the accumulation of these frustrating experiences at one point in time. Aggressive behaviour as a result of frustration will in most cases be directed at the individual who is the source of the frustration, however often this person may have the power to in some way punish the aggressor. This threat of punishment may inhibit aggression or redirect aggression towards individuals who have less retaliation rights and or abilities (e.g. children).

Non-abusive aggression in the form of parental discipine of children is viewed by a majority of the individuals within North American society as legitimate for the purpose of socialization, especially when talking or reasoning with a child are ineffective. Because this form of discipline is viewed as legitimate it is a possible outlet for aggressive responses to frustration. Illegitimate or severe forms of behavioural aggression (i.e. child abuse) as a result of frustration has been investigated. However, although researchers have noted that frequency of legitimate aggression towards children may be related to frustrating experiences and the accumulation of frustrating experiences,

little research has been done in this area. Thus the study of the relationship between frustration or the accumulation of frustrators and frequency of parental aggressive discipline is the emphasis within the present study.

III. Frustration Aggression Theory

Many theories exist which are applicable to the study of parental aggression, such as: psychopathology, social learning, self-attitude, "clockwork orange", symbolic interaction, exchange theory, attribution theory, structural functional, general systems, conflict and resource theories. One theory frequently found within the aggression literature explains the aggression motive through drive (Berkowitz, 1969; 1974; Feshbach, 1970). What these theorists suggest, is that aggression is elicited by various environmental conditions. Perhaps the most famous of these theories was advanced by Dollard, Doob, Miller, Mower and Sears (1939). This framework has been revised by Leonard Berkowitz (1969; 1971; 1974) and was briefly applied to the study of family violence by Gelles and Straus (1979). Little research has been done however, to determine the applicability of frustration-aggression theory to the study of aggressive forms of discipline.

According to the classical theory of frustration-aggression (Dollard et al. 1939), the primary or dominant response to frustration is some form of aggression. The reason for this linkage has been explained in a variety of ways, such as: 1) the result of inevitable frustration which was experienced in childhood, 2) the result of an innate drive and as a 3) learned response (i.e. aggressive) to frustration due to frequent reward for such behaviour (Dollard et al. 1939; Berkowitz, 1969; 1974; Fechback, 1970;

Gelles & Straus, 1979; Zillmann, 1978; Buss, 1971; Bandura, 1973; Lorenz, 1966;1974). However the investigator's concern within the present thesis was not to determine the origin of the frustration-aggression linkage but only to determine if an association exists between frequency of aggressive behaviour towards children and parental frustration. Thus it is part of the frustration-aggression theory which will be tested.

Within the frustration-aggression theory it has been suggested that aggression is the result of an aggressive motive or drive (i.e. "a heightened state of arousal that can be reduced through overt acts of aggression" (Baron, 1977:21)). Originally Dollard et al. (1939) stated two basic propositions with relation to the frustration aggression theory: 1) Frustration always leads to some form of aggression ,and, 2) Aggression always stems from frustration. As previously noted frustration was defined as the blocking or thwarting of ongoing goal directed behaviour or dissatisfaction with one's situations and aggression refers to the drive to hurt or harm another either physically or symbolically (e.g. verbally). There is not a direct linkage suggested between frustration and aggression but rather it is argued that frustration induces an "instigation toward aggression" (i.e. an aggressive drive) which then encourages aggressive forms of behaviour.

However as Bandura (1978) points out, frustration does not only lead to aggression but may also lead to seeking

help and support, inceased achievement, withdrawal or resignation, heightened somatic reactivity, turning to drugs and alcohol or intensifying constructive efforts to overcome the sources of distress. Miller (1941:338) revised the original proposition by stating that "Frustration produces instigations to a number of different types of responses, one of which is an instigation to some form of aggression." As well, in discussing the second proposition Baron (1977) suggests a need for revision, as not all aggression stems from frustration. For example, the paid assassin in most cases has not had a chance to be frustrated by the person he murders. Although it is recognized that the association between frustration and aggression is not exclusive, (i.e. it is recognized that not all frustration leads to aggression and not all aggression is the result of frustration) only the association between frustration and aggression will be evaluated. Thus most researchers reject the idea that frustration always leads to aggression and that aggression is always the result of frustration. However, as Berkowitz states (1969:2-3); "Basically, I believe a frustrating event increases the probability that the thwarted organism will act aggressively soon after... Under some conditions there is an increased likelihood of aggressive behaviour following a frustration."

Dollard et al. (1939) and others (Miller, 1941; Baron, 1977) have suggested that aggression is not always directed at the individual or situation which is frustrating him or

her. In these cases their attacks may be shifted from the thwarting situation, to other targets. Thus it may be stated that the most desired target in a goal-thwarting situation are individuals who are perceived to have blocked the goal directed behaviour. However, in many cases this is not possible because aggression against such an individual may have too great a cost (e.g. the frustrated individual may end up in jail, in a large fight, fired from a job), or the frustrating situation may not be linked with any specific individual (e.g. a stock market fall which causes instant poverty). It is possible that frustrated parents in these situations may either consciously or unconsciously displace their aggression upon their children.

As previously discussed, Dollard et al. (1939) suggest that the primary inhibitor of overt aggression is the threat or fear of punishment (e.g. the boss can fire you, your wife can divorce you). As stated "the strength of inhibition for any act of aggression varies positively with the amount of punishment anticipated to be a consequence of that act" (1939:33). However, although overt aggression is inhibited, the instigation to aggression is not. Thus if the individual is not able to strike out (verbally or physically) at the individual who is frustrating him or her, the aggression may be displaced on another individual who is associated with a weaker threat of punishment, such as the child in a parent child relationship. While abusive acts may be punished by higher authorities, less harming aggressive acts (e.g.

spanking, slapping, yelling) are accepted by ninety percent of North American society as acceptable (Straus, Gelles & Steinmetz, 1980).

In their discussion of the frustration aggression theory Dollard et al. (1939) suggest three critical factors related to the strength of intigation towards aggression. The first is the importance that the individual places on the frustrated or blocked goal. For example, two individuals who lose their homes due to mortgage foreclosure are having the goal of owning their own home thwarted. However, in the first case although the individual wanted to own his own home he did not like yard work, painting and pouring large amounts of money into taxes and mortgage payments and was to some degree, relieved by the loss of his home. In the other case, the individual had saved many years to be able to afford the down payment for a house and had valued and enjoyed his house and therefore was deeply disappointed and dissatisfied (frustrated) by the loss. In both cases the objective frustration existed (the blockage of the goal to own a house), however the subjective frustration in the second case was greater than the subjective frustration in the first case.

The second factor with relation to instigation to aggression is the degree to which a goal is blocked. Using again the house mortgage example, there may be two individuals who desire to remain in their own home, the first, unable to make the payments is forced to sell the

home and move into an apartment. The other individual also looses his home, but it is bought by an individual who is willing to let the previous owner rent the house with an option to buy in two or three years. In both of these situations goals were thwarted however in the first case the thwarting was more complete.

The third factor is related to the frequency with which an individual experiences frustrating situations. Dollard et. al. (1939) suggest that the effect of frustration on the individual is additive. An individual who loses only his home but has little or no frustration in other parts of his life will not feel frustration quite as intensely as the individual who loses his house, job and wife all at the same time. Thus it is suggested that the number of frustrating experiences one has will influence the strength and perceptions of the aggressive drive or motive. As stated by Baron(1977:24) "the effects of successive frustrations may summate over time, so that several minor experiences of this type can combine to induce a stonger aggressive reaction than any one alone." Most of the theoretical arguement thus far has applied to the frustration and subsequent aggression of the individual.

Thus the purpose of this study is to test a portion of the frustration aggression theory by investigating the association between the number of frustrators experienced by the individual and the frequency verbally and physically aggressive discipline by parents. Several important

structural, family, life and individual frustrators will also be analyzed with relation to frequency of verbally and physically aggressive discipline by parents.

A. Propositions

Several propositions will be employed in testing the frustration-aggression theory. The first proposition is based on the theoretical suggestion that one of the important considerations in evaluating the relationship of frustration to aggression, is the number of frustrators being experienced by the individual. Thus it may be suggested that the the number of frustrators that are being experienced by the individual are associated with the frequency with which mothers and fathers utilize aggressive disciplinary methods. The frustrators to be investigated will be accumulated from three groups: 1) frustrators within the family system (i.e. internal) 2) frustrators which influence the individual which are external to the family system (external) and 3) frustrators in personal areas of the individual's life.‘

Based on this discussion the following proposition is suggested:

1) The number of frustrators is positively related to the frequency of parental aggressive discipline.

‘These variables will be operationalized later in this investigation.

While in most cases researchers of stress and frustration responses have argued that it is not the event or the situation only which influences how the individual responds, but rather one's definition of the situation and/or one's resources, that mediate the extent to which an individual experiences frustration. However, it is still recognized that certain situations or structures (e.g. poverty, crowding) are highly correlated with stressful or frustrated responses. For example, Holmes and Rahe(1967) found that the event itself without any knowledge of ones subjective assessment or ones resources, was significantly related to the state of the individual's health (mental and physical).

There are many theorists (e.g. Coser, 1967 - structural; Wolfgang & Ferracuti,1967 - culture of violence; Goode, 1971 - resource theory) who have suggested that more violent or aggressive acts are likely to occur in families occupying lower social positions. According to structural theory this may be because they suffer more frustrations due to blocked goals and dissatisfaction than do families who are further up on the social ladder. Within cultural theory, it is argued that pro-violent norms are prevalent among individuals of lower social strata. Proponents of resource theory suggest that violent actions may be used as a resource when other resources are lacking. Thus individuals who have low prestige, money and power are more apt to experience frustration which may lead to more violent

actions (Goode, 1971: 633). While within the present study the emphasis is not on violence, but rather on legitimate forms of discipline, it is possible that more expressive forms of discipline may be related to the family's location in the social structure. Income and education are two structural variables which may influence the frequency of parental aggressive behaviour.

Income has been discussed as a variable related to frustration. Because of the prevalence of social problems among the poor such as: family instability, mental disorder, delinquency, physical disorders, unemployment and low education, sociologists have discussed the possibility of there being a distinct "culture of the poor" (e.g. Lewis, 1968; Minuchin & Moutalvo, 1967). While this perspective has been debated (e.g. Gans, 1968; Rossi & Blum, 1968), counsellors have found that to be effective it is necessary to work differently with poor families with problems than they would with middle class families with problems. This is because lower socio-economic families tend to have less organized family structures, less defined family boundaries and less effective family communication patterns (e.g. Lewis, 1968; Minuchin & Montalvo,1967; Aponte, 1974;1976).

Utilizing both income and education as indexes of status, Ilfeld (1978) found that there is a strong positive relationship between SES and self-esteem and a negative relationship between demoralization and psychological disorder. These psychological problems make it difficult for

individuals to function adequately within society and frequently individuals become more aggressive or more withdrawn (Kutash & Schlesinger, 1980). People of lower SES levels also tended to view events as outside of their control (Lefcourt, 1976) due to lack of education, money or prestige and see these deficiencies as blockages to the fulfillment of their desires. It is possible that this frustration may lead to more aggressive forms of behaviour.

Based on this discussion, the following proposition is suggested:

2) Socio-economic status is inversely related to the frequency of parental aggressive discipline.

Crowding, which is most often assessed as number of persons per room, has been linked with individual and social problems. For example, Gove, Hughes and Galle (1979) found that both objective crowding (i.e. a measure of number of persons per room) and subjective crowding (i.e. as indicated by excessive social demands and a lack of privacy) were strongly related to poor mental health, poor social relationships in the home and poor child care.

Crowding has also been studied at a more macro level (i.e. measure of persons per acre). However, as Gove et al. (1979) argue, based on research, the greatest individual frustration is elicited by crowding in the home (Carnahan et al, 1974; Galle & Gove, 1978). Theoretically, crowding has been conceptualized as having two aspects that contribute to

the level of stress experienced by the individual. First, excess stimulation or stimulus overload has been discussed and researched (Rapoport, 1972; Galle et al, 1972; Wohlwill, 1974; Milgram, 1970) and has been found to be related to crowding. Second, crowding is related to the reduction or the blockage of the goal of privacy (Alman, 1975; 1976). Based on these theoretical assumptions the following proposition is suggested:

Based on this discussion, the following proposition is suggested:

3) Crowding is positively related to the frequency of parental aggressive discipline.

The rapid increase in the number of mothers, including mothers with young children, who are participating fulltime in the labor force (i.e. dual work families) is recurrently noted in the literature (e.g. Thomson, 1980; Hopkins & White, 1978; Waite, 1978; Miller, 1978). The Rapoports (1971), utilizing descriptive research of highly qualified career women, identified five major dimensions of stress associated with the dual career life style. The categories were: dilemmas associated with personal norms and social norms, identity dilemmas, social network dilemmas, role cycling dilemmas and overload dilemmas.

Of these dimensions the factor most frequently found to be stress producing for both the working mother and the career mother is the overload factor. Overload refers to the

cumulative effect of traditional tasks done by the wife, such as domestic supervision, child care, social arrangement, plus the responsibilities of full time employment. This complex role cluster restricts the amount of time available to the wife-mother, thus causing what has been termed role strain (Goode, 1960). A role cluster may become too large for one individual to handle. This initial theoretical formulation has been further developed by Sieber (1974) and Burr (1973). As Burr states (1973:132):

> The crucial variable here is probably the total amount of activity that is normatively prescribed. This variable can be viewed as a continuous variable ranging from no activity being prescribed to a high amount of prescribed activity. It is likely that increases in this independent variable up to a moderately high point have little or no influence on role strain, and that the influence increases markedly after a certain marginal point is reached.

Within the home many tasks (e.g. child care, cooking, cleaning) must be done and have traditionally been the responsibility of the wife-mother. Goode suggests that one factor which influences the amount of prescribed activity is the extent to which activities are delegated.

Recent researchers have found that egalitarianism in the division of domestic responsibilities has not been the norm in dual career families and is rarely true in dual work situations (Bryson, Bryson & Licht, 1975; Epstein, 1971; Wallston, Foster & Berger, 1975). Rapoport and Rapoport (1971) found that the dual career pair were slightly more apt to secure outside help for household duties and child

care. Waite et al. (1977) found however, that it is becoming more difficult to find individuals to do child care, as a decreased number of housewives are willing to provide this service.

Not only is the wife responsible for household responsiblities and work roles, but she is also expected to be concerned about relationships within the family. Thus the majority of traditional role responsibilities of the wife-mother are not delegated and therefore it would be expected that frustration due to overload (i.e. blockage of the goal to complete or do all of the things the working mother would like to do) would directly influence frequency of maternal physical and verbal aggression.

While much of the wife mother employment research deals with the impact of maternal employment upon wives, Burke and Weir (1976) found that husbands of employed wives were in poorer health and were less content with marriage than men whose wives were not in the work force. The generalizability of this study is limited however, due to the small, upper class sample (i.e. engineers and accountants) that was assessed. In contrast, many subsequent researchers, who have used more stratified samples, have found no difference in the amount of stress and marital adjustment experienced by men with employed or unemployed wives (Booth, 1977; 1979; Staines et al., 1978). However, it may be argued that maternal employment does not allow the husband as much care as the husband of an unemployed wife, due to time

constraints and added responsibilities placed on the wife-mother.

As previously noted, most of the female's domestic role responsibilities within the family are not delegated however, it has been found that the female's maternal role participation is negatively related to paricipation in the labour force (Hoffman, 1961; Nye, 1963). Dizard (1968) and Nye (1976) found that husbands of employed wives tended to take more responsibility and spent more time in child care and child socialization, than did husbands of non-working wives. Because of this additional responsibility (i.e. increased child care responsibilities) it is possible that the husband of the employed wife will also experience overload or frustration (due to time loss, goals are blocked).

Based on this discussion the following proposition is suggested:

4) Dual work is positively related to the frequency of parental aggressive discipline.

The wife mother at home may experience frustration but for different reasons than the working wife mother. It has been found that many mothers leave the home and enter full time employment for intrinsic reasons such as the need to relate to others of the same or a similar cohort, the need to accomplish, a desire for an opportunity to use abilities and to gain self-confidence (e.g. Sobol, 1963; Broverman et

al., 1973; Scanzoni, 1975; Beckman & Houser, 1979).

Those mothers who remain at home have been found to have a high incidence of health problems, psychological problems, low self esteem, feelings of powerlessness, loneliness and boredom (e.g. Hoffman & Hoffman, 1973; Terhune & Kaufman, 1973; Beckman, 1974; 1976; Davidson & Jaccord, 1975; Townes et al., 1976; Hoffman & Manis, 1978). This is especially true when children are small, as mothers have limited mobility and experience greater physical, mental and time demands. Many of the problems discussed with respect to the housewife are related to a deficiency of social relationships (i.e. a blockage of many personal goals) and social rewards (e.g. pay check, promotion). Although the housewife may not experience frustration due to overload, she may experience frustration due to deprivation of certain rewards and relationships.

In contrast, the father who has a wife who is not working would receive adequate intrinsic rewards at work, and would not experience overload because his spouse would generally handle household tasks. Thus it may be that he would experience less stress, from his home situation, which may be reflected in the frequency (or lower frequent use) of aggressive discipline used.

Based on this discussion the following proposition is suggested:

5) Being a housewife is positively related to frequency of maternal aggressive discipline.

Many researchers have studied the impact of a deviant child on parents, the number of children on parents and the first child on parents (e.g. Miller & Westman, 1964; Clausen & Clausen, 1973; Hobbs & Cole, 1976). As pointed out by Hoffman and Manis (1978) few researchers have considered the developmental effect of children on parents. One important study by Hoffman and Manis (1978) looked at the effects of children on the marriage relationship and on satisfactions and dissatisfactions of parents at different stages in the family life cycle. While the study was not longitudinal, and thus may be fraught with cohort problems, the results at least give an indication of what may happen over the family cycle. Within this study it was found that age of the child is related to how satisfied or dissatisfied parents are in various areas of life. In addition, the mere size change of the child is apt to influence the parents aggressive behaviour (especially physical actions) towards a child. For example, it is much more difficult for a mother to spank a six foot two inch seventeen year old than a four foot two inch eight year old. In the of case the seventeen year old, the child has retaliation ability because of size. Thus for the present study age of the youngest child was used more as a control variable in investigating the relationship between parental frustration and frequency of aggressive forms of discipline.

The family has been discussed as an institution fraught with frustration (e.g. Gelles & Straus, 1979; Farrington,

1980). As Gelles and Straus (Gelles & Straus, 1979: pp. 62) state, "the family, by virtue of its structure and functions, can be viewed as an inherently frustrating institution for its members." This is related to the fact that the family is a very unique type of system within our society which is perhaps more susceptible than other institutions to frustration. It is expected that a number of people, perhaps three or more will be able to function successfully together on an intimate basis over long periods of time. However all of the members have needs (e.g. emotional,physical, personal) which if not met produce frustration. As brought out by Gelles and Straus (1979): 1) many hours are spent by family members interacting with other family members, 2) members have a wide range of interests and activities, 3)relationships among family members are high in intensity, 4) many times activities of one family member overlap with the acivities of other family members, 5) there are age and sex discrepancies, 6) members are given the right to influence each other, 7) membership is involuntary for children and 8) conflict is inevitable.

Couple consensus, an area studied extensively by Spanier (e.g. 1976; Spanier & Cole, 1976) is a measure of the frequency with which a couple agrees on various issues. According to balance theory (Newcomb, 1961), people feel positive about those who agree with them on important and relevant issues. Burr (1970) has proposed that there is a positive linear relationship between perceived consensus

(i.e. about salient marital roles) between marriage partners and marital satisfaction. This hypothesis is consistent with Hawkins and Johnsen's (1969) finding that perceived consensus by spouses on important marital roles is significantly related to marital satisfaction. Rollins (1961) also found a significant correlation between perceived consensus about salient marital roles and marital satisfaction. Thus it may be suggested that the less a couple perceives consensus, the more dissatisfied or frustrated they will be with the relationship, and thus the more frequently they may utilize aggressive forms of discipline.

The discussion of terminating a relationship may be seen as an indication that frustration exists within a relationship. Frequently, divorce is discussed when an individual's needs are not being met therefore blocking the individual's goals. For example, researchers and theorists (Booth & White, 1980) have suggested that divorce is actually a process. According to Booth and White this process begins with the recognition of dissatisfaction (i.e.frustration), which then leads to thinking about divorce, discussing divorce with one's spouse and others, consulting attorneys or counsellors, separation, filing for divorce, and then actual divorce. Epidemiologists have suggested that the threat of divorce is profoundly stressful because it causes marital partners to feel that they have failed at achieving the goal of marital stability. As a

result they frequently experience feelings of failure, shame, loss of self-esteem, rejection and incompetence as a person (Bloom, Asher & White, 1978). Therefore it would seem that discussion of breaking up a marital relationship may be a reflection of frustration with ones marital situation as well as frustration producing and thus may be related to acts of aggression.

Within the current literature and reflected in the feminist movement there is the sentiment that childlessness is in many ways preferable to having children (Veevers,1975). The absence of children has been associated with increased free time and opportunity, especially for the female. Thus it is possible that some mothers and fathers may view the child as a blockage (i.e. frustration) to both individual freedom and marital intimacy. There is still an unresolved debate over the question of whether parenting is a crisis situation. A majority of the researchers of the impact of children on the marital relationship have found that the presence of children or a child in a home reduces marital happiness and satisfaction in the home (e.g. Burr, 1970; Rollins & Feldman, 1970; Ryder, 1973; Glenn & Weaver, 1978; Campbell, 1981; Glen & McLanahan, 1982). Blood and Wolfe (1960), have found that, at least in the United States, companionship and happiness with one's spouse is highly valued. However, when children are in the home, in many cases this companionship, happiness and satisfaction decreases especially for women (e.g. Ryder, 1973; as

previously cited). Thus the child may be seen as a blockage to goals or a source of frustration.

As has been previously discussed, the majority of couples would ideally like to be satisfied with their family and happy in their marriages. It may be suggested that when this goal is blocked, many couples experience frustration and may become more aggressive. Often decreased marital or family happiness or satisfaction is linked with having children. In this case the child is seen as a blockage, and may actually be a blockage to the freedom and intimacy of the couple.

Based on this discussion, the following proposition is suggested:

6) Inta-family frustrators are positively related to the frequency of parental aggressive discipline.

As previously discussed, dissatisfaction with one's situation often indicates a sense of blockage of complete goal fulfillment (frustration). The family is one area of the individual's life in which frustration might be experienced and responded to in the form of aggressive behaviour. However most people have relationships, experiences and responsibilities outside of the family, which may also be frustration inducing. Because of the retaliation ability (e.g. being fired from ones job) of many of those outside of the family , and social norms (e.g. assault is a chargeable offense), aggressive behaviour

outside of the family is often punishable or not socially sanctioned. This knowledge acts as a deterrent to the practice of aggressive behaviour. It is possible however, that frustration experienced outside of the family may be vented or displaced on someone with less retaliation rights, using a socially acceptable method. That is, frustration experienced with friends, job, neighbours, hobbies or standard of living may be expressed through the use of frequent legitimate discipline.

Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (1959), who have done much theorizing in the area of work satisfaction, have suggested that there is a group of factors in the work situation which act as satisfiers and a group that work as dissatisfiers. For example, loss of pay, poor working conditions and disagreements with the boss will lead to overall dissatisfaction with the job. Conversely such things as challenging work, chances for development and job responsibility will be associated with job satisfaction. Thus if an individual's abilities and goals are being thwarted the individual will experience overall dissatisfaction or frustration with the job. Several researchers (e.g. Dorr, Honea & Pozner, 1980; Watchempino, 1980; Brady, Kinnaird & Friedrich, 1980) have found that ones job satisfaction is related to the disposition or the total morale (e.g. family relations, suicide, self-esteem) of the individual in many life areas including the home. Thus it may be suggested that as a person's dissatisfaction

or frustration with their job increases, there is an increased propensity toward aggressive acts.

Dubin (1956) suggests that in America, non-work or leisure roles may be central to the individual's satisfaction with his/her life situation. He argues that non work activities may be more salient and significant than even the work role in relation to the level of satisfaction experienced by the individual. According to Debats (1981) non-work activities (e.g. sports, hobbies) have been found to be important in most companies for several reasons, for example: 1) improved employee morale and productivity, 2) development of a feeling of unity within the company and 3) improvement of the company's public image. Thus it would seem that satisfaction with non-work activities is a crucial area of the individual's life, which if blocked may be related to aggressive behaviour.

In many cases, researchers have suggested that dissatisfaction with one's neighbourhood may be related to extensive mobility, low socio-economic status, few neighbourhood friends, crowding, poor living conditions and social isolation (Feinberg, 1978; Gaylord, 1979; Ammons, Nelson & Wodarske, 1982; Gil, 1970; Mitchell, 1971; Young, 1964). However, in much of this neighbourhood satisfaction literature, emphasis has been placed on the importance of personal and social ties to feelings of neighbourhood satisfaction (e.g. Heller, Rasmassen, Cook & Wolosin, 1981). Thus propinquity to one's friends has in past research been

related to a more positive self image and a feeling of control over one's environment. Social isolation has been found to be one of the distinguishing characteristics of abusive families (e.g. Cochran & Brossard, 1979). For example, Young (1964) found that 80 per cent of her sample of abusing parents had no relationships with neighbours, friends or relatives and did not participate in any type of organized group. This was particularly true for mothers who often spend more time at home and thus are more dependent on relationships and social rewards provided by friends and neighbours. Another reason given for the abusiveness of socially isolated parents is related to a lack of social skills which blocks the establishing and maintaining of friendships (e.g. Parke & Collmer, 1975). Thus lack of friendships and dissatisfaction with ones neighbourhood may be related to frequency of aggression by the parent.

Further dissatisfaction with standard of living has been identified as related to aggressive behaviour. As previously discussed, the degree of stress experienced by parents is associated with socio-economic status, especially when the individual is dissatisfied with his or her standard of living. That is, lower socio-economic groups are said to be exposed to greater amounts of environmental stress such as poor living conditions and an inadequate standard of living (e.g. Gil, 1970) and often perceive this situation as dissatisfying. Thus dissatisfaction with one's standard of living is an indicator of the frustration being experienced

by the individual.

Based on this discussion, the following proposition is suggested:

7) Life frustrators (i.e. external to the family) are positively related to the frequency of parental aggression.

Miksik and Brichacek (1980) tested the assumption that dissatisfaction or frustration with personality variables (e.g. self confidence, self-esteem, happiness) is positively related to behavioural responses. They found that individuals who were dissatisfied with personality variables displayed more impulsive-reactive characteristics than individuals who were satisfied with their personal characteristics. Overall personal happiness and well-being has been found to be related to one's responses in interpersonal relationships such as: 1) successful involvement with people (e.g. Wilson, 1967), 2) involvement in social activities (e.g. Beiser, Feldman & Egelhoff, 1972) 3) social-emotional support relationships (e.g. Campbell, 1976) 4) the leisure activities of family or friends (e.g. London, Crandall & Sears, 1977) and 5) sociability and social activity (e.g. Lewinsohn & Amenson, 1978). It may be suggested that frustration in personal areas of life leads in many cases to less functional or appropriate reactions in interpersonal settings (i.e. blocked relationships or aggressive behavioural responses). Thus failures in personal areas of life may lead to blockage of personal fulfillment,

and in turn the individual's response to others may be influenced (e.g. children) in the form of aggressive discipline.

Health is a much studied variable in relation to stress and frustration (e.g. Selye, 1956; Cannon, 1932; Tcheng-Laroche & Prince, 1979; Thomae & Kranzhoff, 1979; Wooley, 1980). The majority of these studies causally identify frustration or stress in one's life as the initiator of poor health . However, it has also been suggested that poor health or health stigma is a frustrating and stressful experience (e.g. Meyerowitz, 1981). Hyman (1978), in a study of child abuse, found that parents in ill health, especially mothers, were more abusive towards their children than mothers in good health. Often these mothers felt blocked from doing the things they wanted because of their health disability. Frequently persons with health problems face blockages of goals due to psychological and physical barriers perhaps resulting in more aggressive behaviours.

As previously discussed, mothers who are employed may experience frustration due to overload. Often the mother has a feeling of commitment to work as well as a feeling of commitment to her family thus producing a conflict situation. For example, Dunlop (1981) has pointed out that the employed mother and her husband have difficulties associated with finding good and affordable day care and concerns about the effects of maternal employment and day

care on the children, in addition to the difficulties (i.e. time, energy) inherent in managing two full-time jobs (i.e. employment and motherhood or fatherhood). Two forms of frustration may result from this conflict: 1) the feeling that the goals to be a good mother or father and good worker will not be met because of the competing demands of work and home, and, 2) the individual's goal of time for self will not be achieved because of scarceness of spare time. However, even when the mother is at home, the goal of time for self may not be achieved due to the competing demands of children. These two goal blockages may affect frequency of parental aggressive behaviour.

Bradburn and Nolls (1965), have been concerned with assessing people's psychological reactions to the stresses and strains of everyday life. Therefore their major focus is on the association between the person's situation in life and his psychological reaction to that situation. Bradburn and Nolls are most interested in psychological well-being or essentially one's happiness with one's life situation. That is, does the individual think that his/her needs are being met? A person experiencing need fulfillment blockage would be expected to achieve a low score on the psychological well-being scale. In several correlational studies these researchers found this relationship significant. Thus these researchers see a low level of psychological well-being as an indication that the individual is experiencing a high level of stress or frustration.

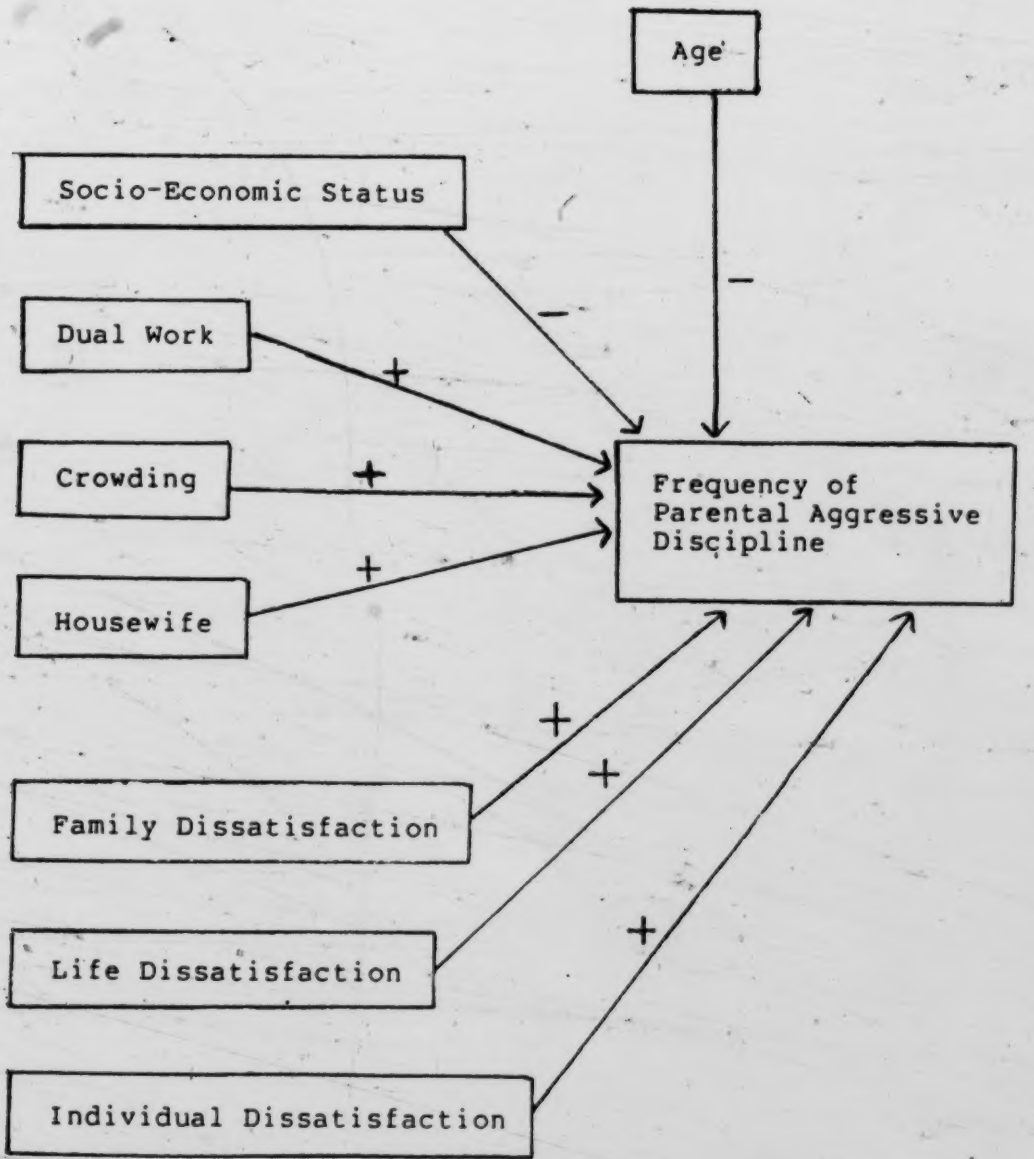
Based on this discussion, the following proposition is suggested:

8) Individual frustrators are positively related to frequency of parental aggressive discipline.

B. Summary

Based on the literature review, the frustration-aggression theory and the discussion of propositions, a model identifying factors affecting frequency of parental aggressive discipline is being proposed. Age is used as a control variable. Several of the variables are more objective or structural in nature such as socio-economic status, dual work, crowding and housewife. That is they are not evaluating the subjective opinion of the individual, but rather deal with the situation that the individual is in, or the role the person plays. The frustrators (i.e. family, life and individual) are combinations of variables that are subjectively evaluated by the individual as dissatisfying or identified in literature as indicators of frustration or dissatisfaction. These relationships are illustrated in Figure 1. The operationalization of each of these variables will be discussed in the next section along with sample details and a discussion of the type of data analysis which is implemented.

Figure 1: The Relationship of Frustrators or Dissatisfiers to the Frequency of Parental Aggressive Discipline.



IV. Methodology

A. Sample

The data for this investigation were taken from the 1980 Edmonton Area Survey (EAS), which is a random sample of individuals from the city of Edmonton, Alberta. The EAS is a survey conducted yearly to assess the "quality of life" in Edmonton. The theme of the 1980 EAS was family life.

A list of Edmonton addresses was compiled using the City of Edmonton 1979 civic census enumerations. From this list, a random sample of 560 addresses was selected by means of a computer program designed specifically for this purpose. Houses were the primary sampling unit, therefore nursing homes and student residences were deleted from the sample. An attempt was made to get individuals from each of the census divisions in order that the sample might be a stratified representation of the Edmonton population.

One respondent from each household was given a one hour interview. Each respondent was 18 years of age or older and identified the dwelling as his/her usual place of residence. The final distribution of respondents by sex indicated that 51.2% were male and 48.8% were female.

An introductory letter was sent to all selected addresses. A total of 40 interviewers were trained and began interviewing the first week of February. Data collection took eight weeks, with 80% of the interviews taking place within the first four weeks.

The response rate was 76.4% yielding a total respondent sample of 428. Because of the high response rate it would be expected that the sample was fairly representative of the total population.

In addition to the respondent sample the spouse was interviewed in 179 of the cases. The respondent-spouse pairs were the data used in this investigation. As only parents with school aged children were asked questions about disciplinary procedures, the sample for this study was limited to 63 couples with school aged children.

The couple sample was used because larger samples of husbands (63) and wives (63) could be obtained, than when the respondent sample (husbands - 45; wives - 44) was used. Although it would have been technically possible to unite the couple and respondent samples to gain an additional five respondents in each group, this proceedure would have had methodological problems. The major problem is that comparisons must be made between the aggregate findings for husbands and wives. These aggregate samples are not independent when the couple data are used. For example husbands and wives will share the same family income, the same crowding situation and may be confronted by the same frustrating situations. Therefore the husband and wife subsamples are interdependent. Adding individuals from the respondent sample to the "couple-wife-subsample" would introduce individuals to the aggregate who are independent of the "couple-husband-subsample". Therefore, to make the

comparisons between subsamples consistent, only the couple data were used.

Because couple data were used, it would have been possible to analyze the interactive affects of husband and wife frustration on frequency of parental verbal and physical aggressive discipline. Although the study of the interrelatedness of husbands and wives is an important area and would add a dimension to the understanding of the relationship between frustration and aggression the purpose of this study was to look at the aggregate disciplinary aggression responses of husbands and wives to frustration. This individual analysis is seen as the first stage of analysis in the understanding of the relationship between parental aggression and type, level and amount of frustration. This individual approach will be followed by an investigation of subsystem relationships in subsequent research.

B. Instruments

The data collected in the EAS included various scales with established reliability and validity and many check-list and demographic questions. A large proportion of these scales and questions were utilized as dependent, independent or control variables in the present investigation. The variables were obtained as follows:

I. Parental aggression: The criterion variables in the frustration-aggression propositions were taken from the

Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS) which was first developed at the University of New Hampshire in 1971. The original scale contained 18 items which could be grouped into three distinct methods of resolving parent-child conflicts: 1) rational discussion and argument, 2) the use of verbal expression of aggression, and, 3) physical force or behavioural aggression which ranged from disciplinary acts such as slapping and spanking to abusive acts such as the use of a lethal weapon. Extensive validity and reliability tests have been done previously on these subscales (Straus, 1979) in which it was found that the scales were both valid and reliable (verbal aggression section, r=.77; physical aggression section, r=.62) using the alpha coefficient of reliablility (Cronback, 1950: 160).

In the original study, frequency of discipline was evaluated on two time frames. First respondents were asked about methods of handling conflicts which had taken place during the previous twelve months. Then respondents were asked to think back over the lifetime of their children to remember the various methods that they had used for conflict resolution.

The present investigation did not utilize the entire scale, and used the scale questions somewhat differently. At the behavioural level of aggression assessment, many abusive acts (i.e. beating up, threatening or using a knife or gun) are listed. Because the focus of this investigation was not to measure abuse, but rather discipline, these questions

were deleted. Only the questions which demonstrated physical and verbal aggression were used. Questions were asked in the following manner:

> Parents sometimes get along with their children and sometimes they don't. There are times when children don't meet their parent's expectations, disobey rules, or refuse to be cooperative and other times they're fine. I am going to read a list of some things that might describe your relationship with your children. Please tell me how often you did them with your children in the last 12 months.

1. Argued heatedly with your children.
2. Scolded, yelled or screamed.
3. Spanked.
4. Pushed, grabbed or shoved.
5. Slapped or hit.

Because only a portion of the scale was used checks were done to determine construct and internal validity of the remaining scale items. As may by seen from Tables 1 and 2 internal and construct validity were high for all of the selected questions. Also, because the purpose of the present investigation was to determine if frustration was associated with parental aggression, it was necessary to use a time period concurrent with the experiencing of frustration, that is, if an individual is experiencing stress at the time of interview the assessment of disciplinary procedure should also be evaluated in the present and not over the total life span of the child. Thus the time periods used were:

1. Never in the past 12 months
2. Once or several times in the past 12 months
3. Once a month

4. Several times a month
5. Once a week
6. Several times a week
7. Daily or almost daily

As can be observed from Table 1, two distinct factors emerged from the aggression variables investigated. By doing content analysis of the two factors, it is clear that one factor is verbal aggression and the other physical or behavioural aggression. The **Verbal Aggression Factor** included:

8. Argued heatedly with your children.
9. Scolded, yelled or screamed.

and the **Physical Aggression Factor** included:

1. Spanked.
2. Pushed, grabbed or shoved.
3. Slapped or hit.

Because the physical and verbal disciplinary types loaded in different factors, verbal and physical aggressive discipline will be investigated separately. This approach is consistent with that taken by Straus (1971).

Table 1: Varimax Orthogonal Factor Analysis of Aggressive Variables.

	Factor I Factor Loadings	h^2	Factor II Factor Loadings	h^2
1) Argued Heatedly with Children	.06	.84	.91	.84
2) Scolding and Yelling at Children	.36	.73	.78	.73
3) Spanked Children	.81	.74	.28	.74
4) Pushed Grabbed or Shoved Children	.86	.73	.04	.73
5) Slapped or Hit Children	.87	.84	.27	.84

Table 2: Item by Item and Item by Total Correlation of Aggression Variables.

	1	2	3	4	5	Verbal Total	Physical Total
1	1.00	.54	.30	.16*	.31	.86	.31
2		1.00	.45	.35	.48	.86	.50
3			1.00	.52	.74	.41	.89
4				1.00	.66	.28	.78
5					1.00	.44	.93
Verbal Total						1.00	.44
Physical Total							1.00

* Significant at or beyond the .05 level

Note[1]: In cases where an asterisk does not appear, correlations are at or beyond the .01 level.

Note[2]: The actual content of items can be found in table 1.

Internal consistency of the two factors was assessed by computing inter-item correlations and item by total score correlations for each factor. Table 2 presents these correlational analyses. As can be seen item by item and item by total correlations are consistently significant. In most cases the item by total correlations are higher than item by item correlations. Although this is commonly found, the reason for this occurrence should be clarified. Factor analysis allows one to identify items that are part of a larger construct, therefore, item by total factor score correlations are reflecting these same associations. However, in the case of Table 2, correlations have been done between each of the items. This enables the reader to independently assess each item in each factor. Returning to item by item correlation it should be noted that the ideal case is to have significance between each pair of items in a given factor. But one does not want excessively high correlations. That is, each item should correlate with each of the other items as well as with the total score. In addition, each item should offer some uniqueness to the larger construct, thus the correlation should not be excessively high. In summary there will be two **measures of parental aggression** used:

1. **Verbal Aggression.**
2. **Physical Aggression.**

II. Frustration Index. The frustration index consists of

frustrating situations that individuals experienced in primarily three life areas: 1) frustration within the family (family dissatisfaction), 2) frustration with situations external to the family (life dissatisfaction), and, 3) frustration affecting the individual personally (individual dissatisfaction).

Intra-family Dissatisfaction. This area of frustrators included several variables assessed using one question, these were:

1. Dissatisfaction with family life.
2. Seeing children as blockages to couple closeness and intimacy.
3. Seeing children as blockages to couple freedom.
4. How many times in the past 12 months have you and your spouse discussed breaking up?
5. Lack of marital happiness.

The family dissatisfaction and child blockage questions were evaluated using a seven level Likert scale, where a one indicated high satisfaction and a seven indicated high dissatisfaction. Individuals were asked to assess marital happiness on an index ranging from 0 to 100. Respondents were told that a 0 indicated low happiness, a 50 indicated average happiness and 100 indicated extreme happiness. This item was reverse scored so that a high score would indicate lack of marital happiness.

As well, Spanier's (1976) dyadic consensus scale was used. The dyadic consensus scale is a subscale of Spanier's

(1976) Marital Adjustment Scale. Thus consensus was assessed as follows:

Most persons have problems in their relationships with their spouses. How often in the past 12 months have you and your spouse argued about:

1. Handling finances.
2. Friends.
3. Work schedules.
4. Relatives.

A Likert scale was used:

1. Never in the past 12 months
2. Once or several times in the past 12 months
3. Once a month
4. Several times a month
5. Once a week.
6. Several times a week.
7. Daily or almost daily.

Reliability was assesed by Spanier using Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha (1950), which is a conservative estimate of reliability. The reliability score for dyadic concensus was .90. The construct validity and internal consistency of the scale were assessed for the EAS sample as only four of the original thirteen consensus questions were used (i.e. factor analysis and pearson r correlation). The results may be found in Tables 3 and 4. As can be seen, construct validity is high as all factor loadings exceed .65. Frequently factor loadings as low as .40 are assumed to be

sufficient to argue construct validity while more stringent investigators use factor loading at the .60 level. Thus it may be suggested that the dyadic consensus subscale has construct validity. Second, the items within the scale correlated significantly both with each other and with the total of the score and yet correlations were not excessive so as to eliminate the uniqueness offered by each item.

Thus the **Intra-family Dissatisfaction Indicators** will be:

1. **Dissatisfaction with family life.**
2. **Seeing children as blockages to couple closeness and intimacy.**
3. **Seeing children as blockages to couple freedom.**
4. **Frequency with which breaking up marital relationship is discussed.**
5. **Lack of couple consensus.**
6. **Lack of marital happiness.**

Table 3: Varimax Orthogonal Factor Analysis of Dyadic Consensus Variables.

	Factor I Factor Loadings	h^2
1) Argued About Finances	.70	.48
2) Argued About Friends	.86	.74
3) Argued About Work Schedules	.69	.48
4) Argued About Relatives	.82	.68

Table 4: Item by Item and Item by Total Correlation of Dyadic Consensus Variables.

	1	2	3	4	Total
1	1.00	.52	.25	.41	.68
2		1.00	.45	.60	.80
3			1.00	.47	.76
4				1.00	.75
Total					1.00

Note[1]: All correlations were significant at or beyond the .01 level of significance.

Note[2]: The actual content of the items can be found in Table 3.

Life Dissatisfaction (external to the family). All of the **Life Dissatisfaction Variables** were one item questions. The items are:

1. **Dissatisfaction with neighbourhood** as a place to live.
2. **Dissatisfaction with job.**
3. **Dissatisfaction with non-working activities** - hobbies and so on
4. **Dissatisfaction with friends.**
5. **Dissatisfaction with standard of living** - the things you have (e.g. car, furniture, recreation and the life).

The responses were based on a seven point Likert scale ranging from 1 which indicated the individual was very satisfied or not frustrated to 7 which indicated the individual was dissatisfied or frustrated.

Individual Dissatisfaction. As with family and life dissatisfaction a majority of the individual dissatisfaction items were evaluated using single questions:

1. Dissatisfaction with health and physical condition.
2. Dissatisfaction due to lack of time to do the things you want to do.
3. Difficulty in coordinating work life and home life.

The first two questions were assessed using a Likert scale which ranged from 1 (satisfied) to 7 (dissatisfied). The third question ranged from not very difficult (i.e. 1) to very difficult (i.e. 7).

In addition, the Bradburn and Caplovitz (1965) scale was used to assess the individual's level of well being. In order to find the validity and reliability of their scale Bradburn and Caplovitz ran a pilot study, a cross-sectional analysis of the populations of four small American towns. They found that high positive affect scores were related to overall ratings of psychological well being. The original scale was composed of two parts (i.e. negative and positive parts). The "well-being" score was calculated by subtracting the negative responses from the positive. Because of space limitations in the EAS questionnaire, only half of the original ten questions were used (i.e. three negative items and two positive items). Factor analysis and correlation (i.e. item by item and item by total) were run to determine construct and internal validity of the remaining items. As may be noted (i.e. Tables 5 and 6), the "I feel I have accomplished something" variable does not load highly or correlate at a significant level with most of the other variables. For this reason, the item was removed from the scale leaving only four items. Because this left only one positive item, and three negative items, they were used as one scale ranging from a high level of well-being (i.e. a low score) to a low level of well-being (i.e. a high score). The "I am excited or interested in something" variable was reverse scored so as to be consistent with the rest of the variables.

Table 5: Varimax Orthogonal Factor Analysis of Well-Being Variables.

	Factor I Factor Loadings	h^2
1) Lonely or Remote From Others	.66	.60
2) Excited or Interested in Something	.53	.58
3) Depressed or Very Unhappy	.66	.45
4) Accomplished Something	.24	.21
5) Bored	.63	.40

Table 6: Item by Item and Item by Total Correlation of Well-Being Variables.

	1	2	3	4	5	Total
1	1.00	.13	.48**	.01	.44**	.74**
2		1.00	.28*	.34**	.31**	.57**
3			1.00	.13	.42**	.76**
4				1.00	.11	.19
5					1.00	.78**
Total						1.00

* Significant at or beyond the .05 level of significance

** Significant at or beyond the .01 level of significance

Note: The actual content of items can be found in Table 5

Reliability for this scale was assessed using a test retest proceedure by Bradburn and Caplovitz (1965). Two hundred respondents from the ten largest metropolitan areas in the United States were selected. The respondents were initially interviewed and than reinterviewed an average of three days later. For each of the items, coefficients of association (Q's) were calculated. In all but one case (Q=.86) the Q-values for individual items exceeded .90. Thus the reliability for these items was uniformly high.

Thus the measures of **Individual Dissatisfaction** will include:

1. **Dissatisfaction with health and physical condition.**
2. **Dissatisfaction with amount of time for self.**
3. **Difficulty coordinating work and home life.**
4. **Lack of a feeling of well-being.**

Structural Variables. In past studies of family violence Gelles (1972) has used several variables as structural variables (e.g. socio-economic status, working patterns, size of family, the age of parents and children). The same was true in this investigation, that is, crowding, age of the youngest child, education, family income, dualwork and housewife will all be analyzed in one stepwise multiple regression equation.

Crowding. Crowding was assessed by dividing the number of rooms by the number of people presently occupying the home to obtain a measure of rooms per person. While other methods

of estimating crowding do exist (e.g. number of persons per bedroom or the number of persons per acre), the one most used (Gove, Hughes & Galle, 1979) and most appropriate for this study, because this is a study of family relationships, is the number of people per room.

Social Economic Status. The measures of socio-economic status considered were years of education and family income. Income was assessed as the total family income over a one year period and years of education was used as a measure of education. Occupation was not used as a measure of socio-economic status in this study because of the lack of variability for both males and females. That is, occupation could not be utilized as an ordinal variable because of the type of options that were provided (i.e. nominal options). Thus in order to be able to use the occupation variable in a regression equation it would be necessary to transform this nominal variable to a dummy variable (i.e. white collar). However, there was very little variability as most working wives were in clerical positions while most males were in construction or mechanical positions.

Dual Working. In order for a family to be assessed as dual working, it was necessary for both the mother and father to be employed full time. Researchers of dual work have suggested and in some cases found that full time employment effects the mother differently than does part time employment (Nye, 1963; Orden and Bradburn, 1969). For example, the mother employed only part-time could be

expected to experience less overload than the wife mother who is employed full-time and would be expected to experience more social reinforcement than the housewife. Thus couples where both mother and father worked full time will be assigned ones while all other couples were assigned zeros.

Housewife. Only wives who were not working at all were considered to be housewives. Again a dummy variable was created. Thus only couples where the wife was a full-time housewife were assigned ones while all other couples were assigned zeros.

Age. Age of children, the control variable, was assessed as the age of the youngest child. While many methods of evaluating the age of children do exist most are stage oriented and may be considered nominal levels of measurement. Because regression was used an interval level of measurment was used (i.e. the age of the youngest child).

C. Data analysis

The data were analyzed using frequencies, correlations, and multiple regression. The first step in the analysis was to develop a frustration index based on the selected family, life, and individual dissatisfiers. Initially, a frequency printout of all of the frustrator variables was obtained to determine frustration categories based on the distribution of the population. Thus in most cases the third of the sample which were most dissatisfied was identified as the

most frustrated. The trichotemy division was used as opposed to the median split in order to identify those who were experiencing a higher level of frustration. The next third was identified as an intermediary group, leaving the satisfied third of the sample. This proceedure was followed except in cases where intuitively it seemed necessary to divide on a different basis. For example, in the case of job satisfaction, according to a thirds breakdown, 1 would be identified as satisfied, 2 as intermediary and 3 through 7 as dissatisfied. Because this division makes little intuitive sense, as people who said they were satisfied would be identified as frustrated. Thus in this case the division was revised to: 5 to 7 as dissatisfied (17.3%), 3 and 4 as intermediary (12.7%) and 1 and 2 as satisfied (70.0%). Thus there were 11 individuals in the frustrated group, 8 in the intermediary group and 44 in the satisfied group. Individuals who fell into the frustration categories were given a code of one for each item. Other categories were coded as zeros. The number of frustrators the individual was experiencing was then calculated by adding the ones, thus producing the frustration index. This is the same methodology that was used by Straus, Gelles and Steinmetz (1980).

The frustration - aggression propositions will be tested using regression and correlation. Correlation will be used for three reasons: 1) to give correlational relationships prior to controlling other independent

variables, 2) for replication and further followup study, and, 3) to detect potential multi-colinearity problems.

The assumptions made when using multiple regression include: 1) data are selected by random sampling methods 2) linear relationships exist between independent and dependent variables, and, 3) independent effects are additive. One test of linearity was conducted (i.e. examination of residuals from/for the regression equation). In all cases independent variables should not deviate significantly from linearity unless there is no relationship at all. In cases where variables were categorical, dummy variable categories were formed (Blalock, 1972; Kim & Kohout, 1975). As was previously mentioned, the individuals from the Edmonton Area Study were randomly selected. Because many of the variables are related (e.g. dual work and income), interactive analysis was run using multiplicative terms. Due to the sample size, it was not possible to run all of the interactive variables concurrent with individual variables (i.e. the variance explained would be artificially raised and the degrees of freedom exceeded). Thus each interactive variable was run separately with the appropriate family, life, individual or structural variables. The alpha level for significance was set at .05 and it necessary for betas of significant relationships to exceed .10 in order to be considered significant.

D. Limitations

A number of limitations existed within the present investigation. Most of the problems were related to the secondary nature of the data. For example, there was no choice of sample size, type of stratification, variables put into the questionnaire, or portion of the sample asked to respond to the aggressive discipline questions.

Although the sample size (63) was adequate for doing correlation and regression, several constraints were placed on how the analysis could be done. First, the number of predictor variables used had to be kept as small as possible so as not to artificially increase the variance explained. Interactive variables could not be run concurrently. Second, although beta values were often meaningful it was more difficult to obtain significance due to the number of degrees of freedom. Thus, although relationships between variables may have been significant in the population, it was more difficult to detect this relationship in the sample. However this also means the relationships found to be significant were relatively strong.

While the sample was randomly selected, the range on many of the variables was not large and therefore possibly not reflective of the total population. For example, one variable which has, in the past, been found to be an important structural variable effecting aggressive behaviour of parents is the size of the family. Within the couple sub-sample of the total EAS sample the largest family was a

family of four and there were only two families of this size. Thus this variable could not be used. As well, occupation, an important socio-economic variable, could not be used because of lack of variability. Rather general categories were used for the assessment of occupation, making it necessary when using multiple regression (an interval level measurement statistic), to make occupation into a dummy variable (white collar versus not white collar). Because most of the women were in white collar jobs (e.g. teachers, nurses, clerical workers) and most of the men were in blue collar jobs (e.g. mechanics, construction workers), very little variablity existed precluding the use of occupation as a socio-economic variable. As well, while there was variablity in family income, none of the families fell below the poverty line ($12,000 per year for a family of four - Statistics Canada, 1980). In fact, 80 percent of the families in the sample had incomes of over $25,000 per year. Although variability did exist in level of education none of the respondents had less than a junior high level of education. Likewise, 80 percent of the sample had one or more rooms per person. These statistics may be representative of a majority of the population but do not take into account those who would, according to the cited literature be experiencing the most frustration. Thus it may be expected that findings using these structural variables will be less significant than if the range was large and encompassed more of those with lower socio-economic

statuses.

In addition, the variance on the aggression variables was small and the values given were low. Again, this could have been a reflection of changes within society, the type of sample (i.e. families were above what is considered the poverty level of income) or the responses may have been effected by social desirablity. However, it is difficult if not impossible in self report studies to accurately eliminate socially desirable responses. This is a problem which plagues much of the research in the social sciences. Thus it is hoped that the findings have given at least an indication of what actually exists.

The selection of variables was confined to those in the questionnaire. Therefore it is probable that not all frustration variables were assessed, however it would not be possible in any study to analyze all frustrators. However an attempt was made to choose more general questions in order that more specific frustrations might be detected. For example, it was hoped that a question such as "how satisfied are you with family life" might bring to mind many specific satisfiers or dissatisfiers to influence the answer.

Finally, preschool aged children's parents were not asked to respond to the discipline questions. The preschool stage of the family cycle has been identified by many (i.e. as previously cited) as an inherently frustrating time for parents. Much of parental time, freedom and independence is reduced, and many times women are forced to stay at home

because of husband demand or are forced to work due to financial need. However, no data were collected for this stage of family life and so no comparisons of family stages could be made.

Because of these limitations it is recognized that certain generalizations cannot be made. For example, only the early school age and adolescent family stages were investigated therefore generalizations can only be made to families with early school age or adolescent families. As in most self report studies, despite limitations, it is hoped that this study has given at least an indication of what exists within the population.

V. Results

The purpose of this investigation was to assess the relationship between: 1) Frustration or dissatisfaction with everyday life experiences and 2) an accummulation of frustrating or dissatisfying everyday life experiences and the frequency of maternal and paternal aggressive discipline (i.e. physical and verbal). As discussed in the review of literature men and women are affected differently by the same frustrating or dissatisfying situation and thus will be analyzed seperately.

As can be seen from the correlation tables which appear in Appendix A, none of the Pearson r levels are excessively high. The highest correlations for fathers were between satisfaction with amount of time for self and work, home conflict (r=.60) and between dissatisfaction with job and dissatisfaction with standard of living (r=.59). For mothers, the highest correlations existed among lack of marital concensus, unhappiness in relationship and frequency with which breaking up the marital relationship is discussed (lack of marital concensus and unhappiness in relationship, r=.42; lack of marital consensus and frequency with which breaking up the marital relationship is is discussed, r=.52; unhappiness in relationship and frequency with which breaking up the marital relationship is discussed, r=.49) and between, dissatisfaction with friendships and dissatisfaction with standard of living (r=.54). Thus there is little indication that multi-colinearity problems exist.

Because the controlling of variables (i.e. age, structural variables, other predictor variables) has been found to be important in previous studies [7] the discussion of findings will be limited to a commentary on the regression tables.

One of the basic assumptions made when using regression is that there is a linear relationship between the dependent and independent variables. In order to test this assumption, the residuals for each of the independent variables were plotted against the dependent variables. Although slight curvilinearity did exist in some cases, the distributions did not deviate significantly from linearity, except where there was no relationship at all.

As previously noted, interactions between predictor variables may influence the dependent variable. That is, the impact of the independent variables may in some cases be multiplicative. Interactions were assessed using multiplicative terms, the creation of a composite variable by multiplying two variables together. Due to the size of the sample (63) and multi-colinearity problems main effect and interaction variables were not analyzed in the same regression equation. Inclusion of all of the interaction variables in the regression equation would render the resulting data useless for two reasons: 1) the variance explained would be unrealistically high, and, 2) beta values would be unstable when multi-colinearity problems existed. For these reasons it was necessary to run each of the

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[7] As discussed in the literature review.

interactive variables separately controlling for main effect variables. The composite tables of these many runs may be found in Appendix B. In several of the analyses it was necessary to drop variables that composed multiplicative terms, because of multi-colinearity problems. Utilizing this methodology, it was found that no two variable interactions significantly influenced the dependent variables. Because two variable interactions did not significantly influence the dependent variables, three and four variable interactions were not calculated or tested.

Age of the Youngest Child. In this investigation, age was used as a control variable, although it has been argued that the age of a child is inversely related to the amount of stress being experienced by the parent. Data were not collected on the preschool child, the group identified as the most stress producing. The age of the youngest child was not significantly related to frequency of verbal or physical aggression on the part of the mother (Tables 9 and 10). The relationship between age of the youngest child and frequency of physical aggression was not significant. In both cases the beta values were negative.

The age of the youngest child was significantly related to the frequency of physical aggression by fathers (Tables 7 and 8). The measure of association between age of the youngest child and physical aggression was negative, thus it may be suggested that as the age of the youngest child goes up, the use of physical forms of discipline becomes less

frequent. Approximately twelve percent additional variance in frequency of physical discipline was related to the age of the youngest child.

Proposition 1: The number of accumulated frustrators positively influences the frequency of aggressive parental discipline.

The importance of the number of frustrators experienced by the individual as an antecedent to aggressive behaviour has been both theorized and researched (e.g. Dollard et al, 1939; Farrington, 1980; Holmes & Raché, 1967; Baron, 1977; Straus, Gelles & Steinmetz, 1980). Thus it was expected that the more frustrating or dissatisfying experiences the parent had, the more frequently he or she would use verbally and physically aggressive discipline. Utilizing the frustration index the relationship between the number of frustrators and frequency of aggressive disciplinary behaviours was assessed. In all cases (Tables 7, 8, 9 and 10), frequency of frustration had a significant, positive association with frequency of parental physical and verbal aggression. Therefore, the more frustrators experienced by the father or mother, the more apt he or she was to utilize physically or verbally aggressive forms of discipline.

Structural Variables: As previously discussed, many structural variables may induce frustration. In all cases structural variables were objective evaluations and thus not dependent upon the individual's personal evaluation of their

situation. In contrast the frustration index is composed of more subjective measures or indicator of dissatisfaction. Frequency of dissatisfaction was controlled in the regression analysis of the control variable and structural variables as related to the frequency of parental aggressive forms of discipline.

Proposition 2: Socio-economic status is inversely related to frequency of parental aggressive discipline.

Years of education. Education was not significantly associated with frequency of paternal physical aggression or frequency of paternal verbal aggression (Tables 7 and 8). In both cases, the level of association, calculated F and additional variance explained were small.

Conversely, for mothers, years of education was more related to frequency of aggressive discipline. Years of schooling was found to be significantly related to physical aggression (Table 9). The Beta value was meaningful (Beta=-.36) and 12 percent of additional variance in maternal physically aggressive discipline was explained by the number of years the mother had attended school. The relationship between years of schooling and frequency of maternal verbal aggressive discipline was not significant (Table 10). Thus the more years of education the mother has the less apt she is to utilize physically aggressive forms of discipline. However this relationship does not hold for verbal forms of aggressive discipline.

Table 7: Multiple Regression Summary of Structural Variables and the Father's Frustration Index as Related to the Frequency of the Father's Physical Disciplinary Aggression.

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Age of Youngest Child	- .0644	-.3737	9.224**	.1202
Frustration Index	.4140	.2792	4.946*	.0723
Crowding	2.3387	.1702	1.878	.0315
Dualworking	- .4545	-.0801	.420	.0050
Years of Schooling	- .0538	-.0786	.386	.0050
Family Income	.0282	.0302	.056	.0008
Constant	3.3982			

R^2=.2348 F=2.6596 P=.0251 N=63

* Significant at or beyond the .05 level

** Significant at or beyond the .01 level

Note: R^2 in the body of this table is a measure of the additional variance explained by each of the variables.

Table 8: Multiple Regression Summary of Structural Variables and the Father's Frustration Index as Related to the Frequency of the Father's Verbal Disciplinary Aggression.

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Frustration Index	.4835	.3219	6.257*	.1121
Age of Youngest Child	- .0360	-.2066	2.681	.0417
Family Income	- .1758	-.1860	2.012	.0318
Crowding	.9843	.0707	.308	.0041
Years of Schooling	.0498	.0719	.307	.0042
Dualworking	.2264	.0394	.097	.0015
Constant	5.9471			

R^2=.1954 F=2.1054 P=.0683 N=63

* Significant at or beyond the .05 level

Note: R^2 in the body of this table is a measure of the additional variance explained by each of the variables.

Table 9: Multiple Regression Summary of Structural Variables and the Mother's Frustration Index as Related to the Frequency of the Mother's Physical Disciplinary Aggression.

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Frustration Index	.5400	.4314	15.629**	.2265
Years of Schooling	- .3224	-.3597	9.976**	.1259
Age of Youngest Child	- .0404	-.2074	3.653	.0470
Dual Working	-1.0270	-.1603	1.705	.0147
Family Income	.1105	.1048	.871	.0136
Crowding	-1.4633	-.0943	.767	.0094
Housewife	- .3966	-.0634	.265	.0029
Constant	7.7867			
R^2=.4400	F=5.7255	P=.0001	N=63	

** Significant at or beyond the .01 level

Note: R^2 in the body of this table is a measure of the additional variance explained by each of the variables.

Table 10: Multiple Regression Summary of Structural Variables and the Mother's Frustration Index as Related to the Frequency of the Mother's Verbal Disciplinary Aggression.

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Frustration Index	.5433	.4328	12.317**	.2003
Years of Schooling	- .1966	-.2002	2.420	.0492
Housewife	1.1760	.1716	1.523	.0260
Age of Youngest Child	- .0151	-.0710	.336	.0048
Family Income	.0762	.0660	.270	.0032
Dual Working	.2318	.0330	.057	.0008
Crowding	.4913	.0289	.056	.0008
Constant	5.6478			
R^2=.2849	F=2.9031	P=.0124	N=63	

** Significant at or beyond the .01 level

Note: R^2 in the body of this table is a measure of the additional variance explained by each of the variables.

Family income. There was no relationship found between family income and physically or verbally aggressive discipline for fathers (Tables 7 and 8).

For mothers, neither of the relationships (Tables 9 and 10) even approached significance. Betas, F values and the additional variance explained were low. Thus, it would appear that level of family income has little impact on frequency of aggression. However, this may or may not be the case. People who would fall into the poverty portion of the population were not represented in this part of the EAS sample. The poverty section of the population would include those who would be expected to experience the most environmental frustration.

Proposition 3: Crowding is inversely related to the frequency of parental aggressive discipline.

Crowding was not significantly related to frequency of verbal or physical aggression (Tables 7 and 8)for fathers In both cases the level of association, calculated F and the variance explained were small.

Beta values were even lower when the relationship between crowding and frequency of aggressive discipline was calculated for mothers.

Proposition 4: Dual working is positively related to the

frequency of parental aggressive discipline.

The relationship between dual working and frequency of aggressive forms of discipline was not significant in any of the four analyses (Tables 7,8,9 and 10). In all cases the additional variance explained and beta values were small.

Proposition 5: Being a housewife is positively related to frequency of maternal disciplinary aggression.

The housewife variable was run only for mothers, as the secondary data set utilized did not contain a large enough representation of males who were in the home full-time. Neither of these relationships were significant therefore no relationship exists.

Proposition 6: Intra-family frustrators are positively related to frequency of parental aggressive discipline.

As was noted, structural variables may influence the individual's frustration level and alternately the frequency with which aggressive behaviour is exhibited. In contrast, it has been suggested (e.g. Straus, Gelles and Steinmetz, 1980, Farrington, 1980) that many forms of stress and frustration are present within the family unit. Thus some important family dissatisfactions were investigated (Tables 11,12,13 and 14). Structural variables that were found to be significant were controlled when investigating family

dissatisfaction variables.

Discussing breaking up the marital relationship. Talk of terminating the marital relationship did not significantly influence the frequency of physical aggression by fathers (Table 11). In contrast, the frequency with which breaking up the marital relationship is discussed (Table 12) was significantly associated with frequency of paternal verbal disciplinary aggression. Thus the more often breaking up the marital relationship is discussed the more apt the father is to utilize verbal forms of aggression.

For mothers, no significant relationship was found between discussing breaking up the marital relationship and frequency of maternal verbal aggression. The beta value was low and the F value was not significant.

However, a significant relationship did exist between talk of terminating the marital relationship and frequency of maternal physical discipline. The beta value was positive and meaningful. Thus the more frequently a couple discusses breaking up their marital relationship, the more frequently physical forms of discipline were used by the mother.

Table 11: Multiple Regression Summary of Family Dissatisfiers as Related to the Frequency of Paternal Physically Aggressive Discipline.

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Lack of Dyadic Consensus	.3333	.4479	16.484**	.2985
Age of Youngest Child	- .0508	-.2947	6.388*	.0786
Frequency with which Breaking up is Discussed	.0381	.1953	3.012	.0347
Dissatisfaction with Family Life	.2489	.0864	.509	.0051
Seeing Child as a Blockage to Couple Freedom	.1182	.0501	.160	.0018
Seeing Child as a Blockage to Couple Closeness and Intimacy	.0583	.0318	.069	.0009
Lack of Marital Happiness	.0041	.0264	.050	.0005
Constant	3.6440			

R^2=.4282 F=5.6926 P=.0001 N=63

* Significant at or beyond the .05 level

** Significant at or beyond the .01 level

Note: R^2 in the body of this table is a measure of the additional variance explained.

Table 12: Multiple Regression Summary of Family Dissatisfiers as related to Frequency of Paternal Verbal Disciplinary Aggression.

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Lack of Dyadic Consensus	.4070	.5400	30.033**	.3979
Frequency with which Breaking up is Discussed	.0535	.2705	7.304**	.0481
Seeing Child as a Blockage to Couple Closeness and Intimacy	.4616	.2484	5.608*	.0624
Dissatisfaction with Family Life	- .3677	-.1260	1.553	.0123
Seeing Child as a Blockage to Couple Freedom	.1302	.0545	.239	.0033
Lack of Marital Happiness	.0049	.0313	.088	.0008
Constant	2.2524			
R^2=.5248	F=10.3098	P=.0000	N=63	

* Significant at or beyond the .05 level

** Significant at or beyond the .01 level

Note: R^2 in the body of this table is a measure of the additional variance explained by each of the variables.

Table 13: Multiple Regression Summary of Family Dissatisfiers and Years of Schooling as Related to the Frequency of Maternal Physical Disciplinary Aggression.

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Frequency with which Breaking up is Discussed	.4298	.2783	4.201*	.2227
Years of Schooling	- .2142	-.2391	4.220*	.0846
Lack of Dyadic Consensus	.1438	.1747	1.679	.0342
Lack of Marital Happiness	.0165	.1007	.496	.0148
Dissatifaction with Family Life	.2874	.0813	.411	.0055
Seeing Child as a Blockage to Couple Freedom	.0827	.0336	.093	.0011
Seeing Child as a Blockage to Couple Closeness and Intimacy	-	-	-	-
Constant	5.3686			
R^2=.3628	F=4.4740	P=.0005	N=63	

* Significant at or beyond the .05 level

Note: R^2 in the body of this table is a measure of the additional variance explained by each of the variables.

Table 14: Multiple Regression Summary of Family Dissatisfiers as Related to the Frequency of Maternal Verbal Disciplinary Aggression.

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Lack of Dyadic Consensus	.3863	.4284	9.902**	.2547
Seeing Child as a Blockage to Couple Closeness and Intimacy	.5735	.2322	3.575	.0394
Lack of Marital Happiness	.0466	.2601	3.449	.0320
Dissatisfaction with Family Life	.3254	.0841	.434	.0049
Seeing Child as a Blockage to Couple Freedom	.1802	.0669	.296	.0038
Frequency with which Breaking up is Discussed	- .0988	-.0584	.178	.0021
Constant	2.4654			

R^2=.3366 F=4.7358 P=.0006 N=63

** Significant at or beyond the .01 level

Note: R^2 in the body of this table is a measure of the additional variance explained by each of the variables.

and verbal forms of discipline are use by the father.

Lack of dyadic consensus. Dyadic consensus was found to be an important predictor of frequency of parental physical and verbal disciplinary frequencies. Only in relation to maternal physical aggression was this association not significant. In all other cases the relationships were significant and meaningful. The variance explained by dyadic consensus ranged from 25 percent (i.e. maternal verbally aggressive discipline) to 39 percent (i.e. paternal verbally aggressive discipline). Beta values were positive, indicating that the more mothers and fathers perceived disaggreement the more frequently they were physically and or verbally aggressive in disciplinary methods.

Unhappiness in the marital relationship. How happy a mother or father is with their marital relationship was not found to be related to the frequency of aggressive disciplinary behaviour. In all cases non significant relationships were obtained and very little additional variance in aggression was explained.

Dissatisfaction with family life. As with unhappiness in the marital relationship, dissatisfaction with family life was not significantly or meaningfully related to parental aggression.

Child perceived as a blockage to couple freedom. Again relationships were not significant. Little of the variance in parental aggressive behaviour was explained by parents perceiving the child as a blockage to couple freedom.

Child perceived as a blockage to couple intimacy. Only the father perceiving the child as a blockage to couple intimacy had a significant association with frequency of the father's verbal aggressive discipline. This relationship was meaningful and positive. Thus the more the father perceived the child as a blockage to couple intimacy the more frequently aggressive forms of verbal discipline were used. All other relationships were not significant.

Proposition 7: Life frustrators (external to the family) are positively related to the frequency of parental aggressive discipline.

As with family variables, the analysis of life variables was done controlling for structural variables that were found to be significantly related the frequency of parental aggression (Tables 15, 16, 17 and 18).

Dissatisfaction with standard of living. There were no significant relationships found between dissatisfaction with standard of living and frequency of parental aggression.

Dissatisfaction with friendships. No significant associations were found between satisfaction with friendships and frequency of parental aggression and very little additional variance was explained.

Dissatisfaction with job. No significant relationships were found between job satisfaction and parental aggression and very little variance was explained by this variable. However it should be noted that the range on job satisfaction and

satisfaction with standard of living was minimal and very negatively skewed. Thus there was a low representation of people who were deeply dissatisfied with their job or standard of living. This means that there was a low representation of those who would be expected to be experiencing the most frustration, that is those extremely dissatisfied with their job and/or standard of living.

Dissatisfaction with non-work activities. Once again there were no significant relationships between dissatisfaction with non-work activities and frequency of parental aggression. Dissatisfaction with non-work activities did not even entered into the stepwise regression equation. All other beta values and R squared values were low.

Dissatisfaction with neighbourhood. In all cases except in relation to the frequency of the mothers verbal aggression, dissatisfaction with neighbourhood had no significant relationship to parental aggression. In the case of the mother's verbal aggression there was a significant and meaningful positive relationship. Therefore it seems that as the mother's dissatisfaction with her neighbourhood increases so does the frequency of her verbal aggression towards her child.

Table 15: Multiple Regression Summary of Life Dissatisfiers as Related to the Frequency of Paternal Physically Aggressive Discipline.

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Age of Youngest Child	- .0536	-.3110	5.167*	.1202
Dissatisfaction with Neighbourhood	.5199	.1984	2.472	.0320
Dissatisfaction with Friendships	.4833	.2053	2.247	.0213
Dissatisfaction with Standard of Living	.3538	.1520	.889	.0139
Dissatisfaction with Job	.0594	.1374	.052	.0007
Dissatisfaction with Non-Work Activities	-	-	-	-
Constant	4.8954			
R^2=.1882	F=2.1633	P=.0602	N=63	

* Significant at or beyond the .05 level

Note: R^2 in the body of this table is a measure of the additional variance explained by each of the variables.

Table 16: Multiple Regression Summary of Life Dissatisfiers as related to Frequency of Paternal Verbal Disciplinary Aggression.

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Dissatisfaction with Non-Work Activities	.4170	.1791	1.437	.0206
Dissatisfaction with Standard of living	.4423	.1876	1.209	.0081
Dissatisfaction with Friendships	- .3568	-.1496	.916	.0118
Dissatisfaction with Job	- .2048	-.1272	.621	.0097
Dissatisfaction with Neighbourhood	.2317	.0873	.413	.0068
Constant	4.1051			
R^2=.0571	F=.6900	P=.6338	N=63	

Note: R^2 in the body of this table is a measure of the additional variance explained by each of the variables.

Table 17: Multiple Regression Summary of Life Dissatisfiers and Years of Schooling as Related to the Frequency of Maternal Physical Disciplinary Aggression.

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Years of Schooling	- .3578	-.3992	10.694**	.1319
Dissatisfaction with Friendships	.4611	.1695	1.301	.0916
Dissatisfaction with Standard of Living	.5896	.1828	1.604	.0190
Dissatisfaction with Non-Work Activities	.2562	.1019	.673	.0099
Dissatifaction with Job	.0679	.0748	.363	.0052
Dissatisfaction with Neighbourhood	.0633	.0274	.051	.0007
Constant	6.5075			
R^2=.2584	F=3.1351	P=.0104	N=63	

** Significant at or beyond the .01 level

Note: R^2 in the body of this table is a measure of the additional variance explained by each of the variables.

Table 18: Multiple Regression Summary of Life Dissatisfiers as Related to the Frequency of Maternal Verbal Disciplinary Aggression.

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Dissatisfaction with Neighbourhood	.7173	.2828	4.787*	.0919
Dissatisfaction with Job	.1721	.1731	1.748	.0293
Dissatisfacion with Friendships	.1693	.0568	.130	.0077
Dissatisfaction with Non-Work Activities	.1071	.0389	.086	.0010
Dissatisfaction with Standard of Living	.1362	.0385	.062	.0010
Constant	3.4859			
R^2=.1314	F=1.6640	P=.1588	N=63	

* Significant at or beyond the .05 level

Note: R^2 in the body of this table is a measure of the additional variance explained by each of the variables.

Proposition 8: Individual frustrators are positively related to frequency of parental aggressive discipline.

Once again the significant structural variables were controlled, this time in the investigation of the relationship between individual dissatisfaction variables and frequency of physical and verbal forms of parental discipline (Tables 19, 20, 21 and 22).

Dissatisfaction with health. The relationships between dissatisfaction with health and the frequency of parental aggression were not significant.

Problems coordinating work and home life. The work home conflict variable was not significantly related to physical or verbal aggression frequency of fathers or mothers. In all cases very little of the variance in aggression frequency was explained by the work home conflict variable.

Dissatisfaction with amount of time for self. Satisfaction with the amount of time one has for self was not significantly related to frequency of aggressive discipline by parents. Very little of the variance in the frequency of parental aggression was explained by how satisfied individuals were with the amount of time they have for themselves. The satisfaction with amount of time for self variable was not even entered into the stepwise regression equation as a predictor of frequency of maternal aggressive discipline.

Table 19: Multiple Regression Summary of Individual Dissatisfiers as Related to the Frequency of Paternal Physically Aggressive Discipline.

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Age of the Youngest Child -	.0598	-.3470	5.290*	.1202
Lack of a Feeling of Well-Being	.3690	.3066	4.041*	.1045
Difficulty Coordinating Work and Home Life	.2368	.1500	.592	.0068
Dissatisfaction with the Amount of Time for Self -	.1812	-.1113	.297	.0032
Dissatisfaction with Health	.1957	.0802	.241	.0054
Constant	1.9428			
R^2=.2402	F=2.1498	P=.0831	N=63	

* Significant at or beyond the .05 level

Note: R^2 in the body of this table is a measure of the additional variance explained by each of the variables.

Table 20: Multiple Regression Summary of Individual Dissatisfiers as related to Frequency of Paternal Verbal Disciplinary Aggression.

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Lack of a Feeling of Well-Being	.4691	.3848	6.092*	.1592
Dissatisfaction with the Amount of Time for Self	.2865	.1737	.698	.0189
Dissatisfaction with Health	.0875	.0354	.045	.0007
Difficulty Coordinating Work and Home Life	.0641	.0401	.041	.0010
Constant	1.8504			
R^2=.1798	F=1.9176	P=.1243	N=63	

* Significant at or beyond the .05 level

Note: R^2 in the body of this table is a measure of the additional variance explained by each of the variables.

Table 21: Multiple Regression Summary of Individual Dissatisfiers and Years of Schooling as Related to the Frequency of Maternal Physical Disciplinary Aggression.

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Years of Schooling	- .3787	-.4224	5.933*	.1319
Dissatisfaction with Health	.4495	.2112	1.681	.0919
Lack of a Feeling of Well-Being	.2468	.2236	2.104	.0403
Difficulty Coordinating Work and Home Life	.2378	.1396	.679	.0136
Dissatifaction with Amount of Time for Self	.1512	.0846	.274	.0059
Constant	4.9208			
R^2=.2837	F=2.6139	P=.0425	N=63	

* Significant at or beyond the .05 level

Note: R^2 in the body of this table is a measure of the additional variance explained by each of the variables.

Table 22: Multiple Regression Summary of Individual Dissatisfiers as Related to the Frequency of Maternal Verbal Disciplinary Aggression.

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Lack of a Feeling of Well-Being	.4358	.3356	4.352*	.1434
Dissatisfaction with Health	.4601	.1974	1.535	.0386
Difficulty Coordinating Work and Home Life	.0718	.0385	.061	.0015
Dissatisfaction with Amount of Time for Self	-	-	-	-
Constant	1.4727			
R^2=.1834	F=1.9088	P=.1315	N=63	

* Significant at or beyond the .05 level

Note: R^2 in the body of this table is a measure of the additional variance explained by each of the variables.

Lack of a feeling of well-being. Level of well-being was found to be an important variable in relation to the frequency of parental aggression. In all cases except between level of well-being and frequency of the mother's verbal aggression, significant and meaningful relationships were found. All relationships were positive, suggesting that mothers or fathers who lacked a feeling of well-being utilized physically (i.e. fathers only) and verbally aggressive forms of discipline more frequently than those experiencing a higher level of well-being.

Summary

In all cases the greater the frequency of frustrators being experienced the more frequently physically and verbally aggressive forms of disciple were used. Thus as the number of minor frustrators increases so also does the frequency of aggressive disciple.

For fathers, marital and family relationship frustrators explained the most variance (total variance) in the frequency of aggressive discipline (physical, R^2=.44; verbal, R^2=.52). As can be seen in Figures 2 and 3, of these variables, only lack of dyadic consensus was independently related significantly to frequency of physical disciplinary aggression. Lack of dyadic consensus, frequency with which breaking up marital relationship was discussed and seeing a child or children as blockages to couple closeness and

intimacy were all independently, significantly and positively related to frequency of paternal verbally aggressive discipline.

Structural variables and individual variables accounted for a moderate amount of variance (total variance). In each of the tables it may be seen that there were independent variables that were of paricular importance. For structural variables, apart from the frustration index, only the age of the youngest child was significantly related to frequency of paternal physical aggressive discipline. None of the structural variables were significantly associated with frequency of paternal verbal aggression. The key individual variable was lack of a feeling of well-being. All of the other individual variables had little relationship to the frequency of the father's physical or verbal aggressive discipline (Figures 2 and 3). The more the father lacked a feeling of well-being the more frequently verbally and physically aggressive discipline were used as can be seen in Figures 2 and 3.

Life frustrators accounted for very little additional variance explained in frequency of the father's aggressive discipline (physical, R^2=.07; verbal, R^2=.06). As discussed, this may have been affected by the negatively skewed distribution on many of the life frustration variables. That is, there was a low representation of those who would be expected to experience the most frustration.

For mothers, structural variables and the frustration index explained 44 percent of the variance in the frequency of maternal verbal aggression. Independently, the frustration index and the number of years of schooling had a significant (at or beyond the .01 level) association with maternal physical aggression (Figures 4 and 5). In relation to maternal verbal aggression only the frustration index was at a significant level as can be seen in Figure 5. Thus the only structural variable that was significantly related to frequency of maternal aggression was years of schooling. As years of mothers schooling increased the frequency with which mothers used physically aggressive discipline decreased. It should be noted that the age of the youngest child approached significance in relation to the frequency of the mother's physically aggressive discipline.

Marital and family relationship frustrators were found to have an important relationship to maternal disciplinary aggression. Overall (total variance) 36 percent of the variance in maternal physical discipline and 34 percent of the variance in maternal verbal discipline was explained by family frustrators (Figures 4 and 5). Specifically the frequency with which beaking up the marital relationship was discussed was significantly and positively related to the frequency of maternal physical discipline. Thus the more breaking up was discussed the more apt the mother was to utilize physical discipline. Lack of dyadic consensus was the only independent family frustration variable that was

significantly related to frequency of maternal verbal discipline.

As can be seen from Figures 4 and 5, the only life frustration variable that was significantly associated with frequency of maternal discipline was dissatisfaction with neighbourhood. The dissatisfaction with neighbourhood variable was positively related to the frequency with which the mother used verbal aggressive discipline. Thus more verbal discipline was used by mothers who were dissatisfied with their neighbourhoods than by those mothers who were satisfied with their neighbourhoods.

As with life frustrators, only one individual frustrator was significantly related to frequency of maternal aggressive discipline. Lack of a feeling of well-being was positively related to the frequency of maternal verbally aggressive discipline (Figures 4 & 5). Thus the more a mother lacked a feeling of well-being the more verbally aggressive discipline was used. A summary of these findings may be found in Figures 2 to 5.

Figure 2: Frequency of Paternal Physical Disciplinary Aggression as Related to Frustration (Summary).

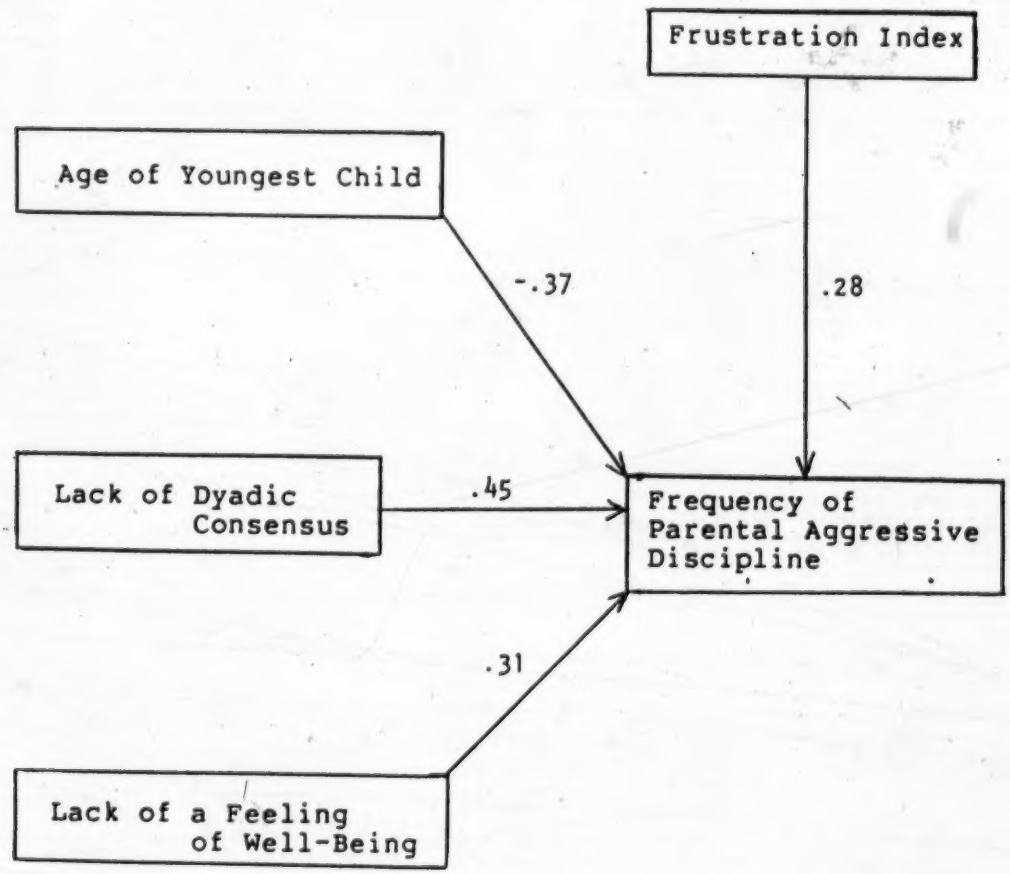


Figure 3: Frequency of Paternal Verbal Disciplinary Aggression as Related to Frustration (Summary).

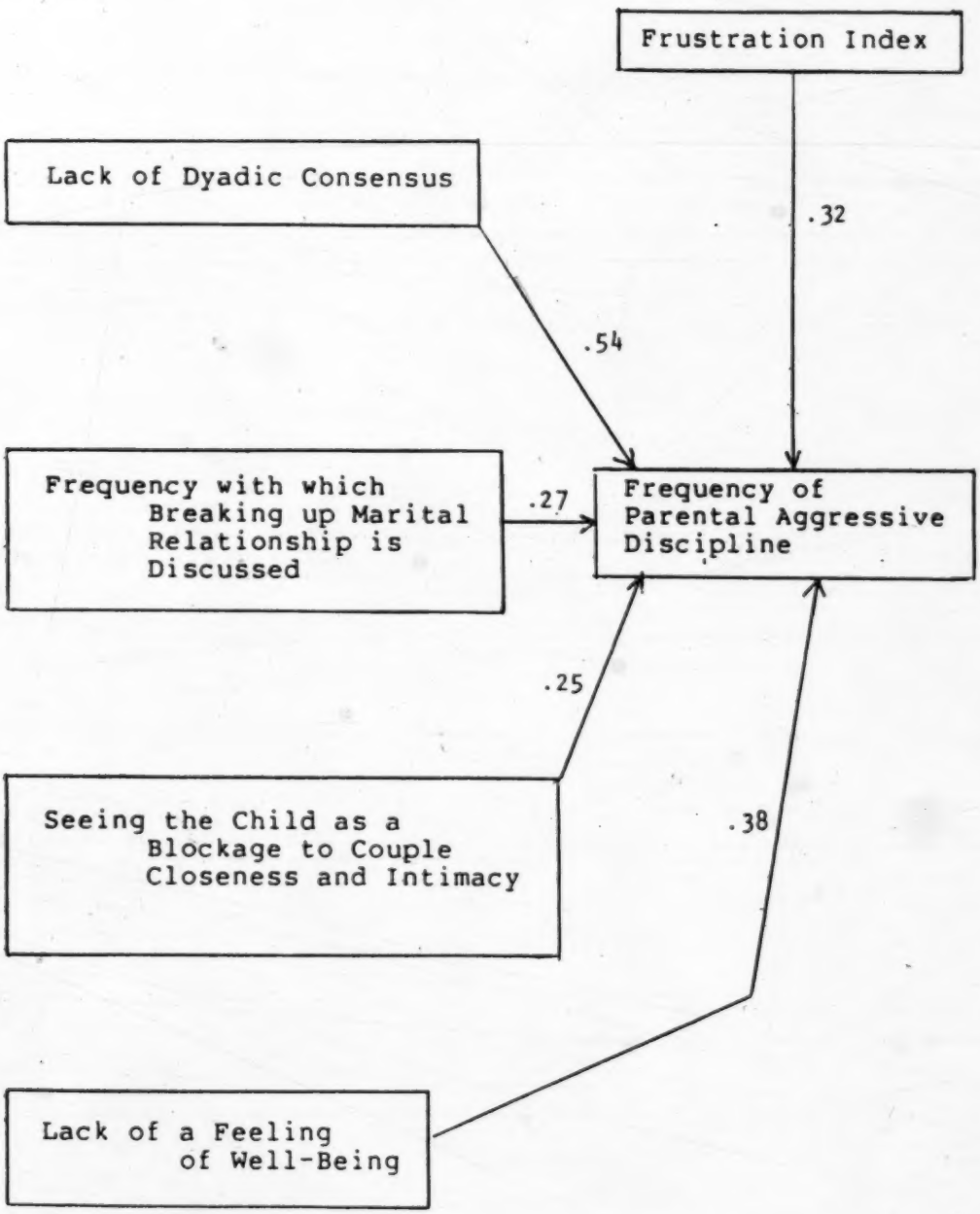


Figure 4: Frequency of Maternal Physical Disciplinary Aggression as Related to Frustration (Summary).

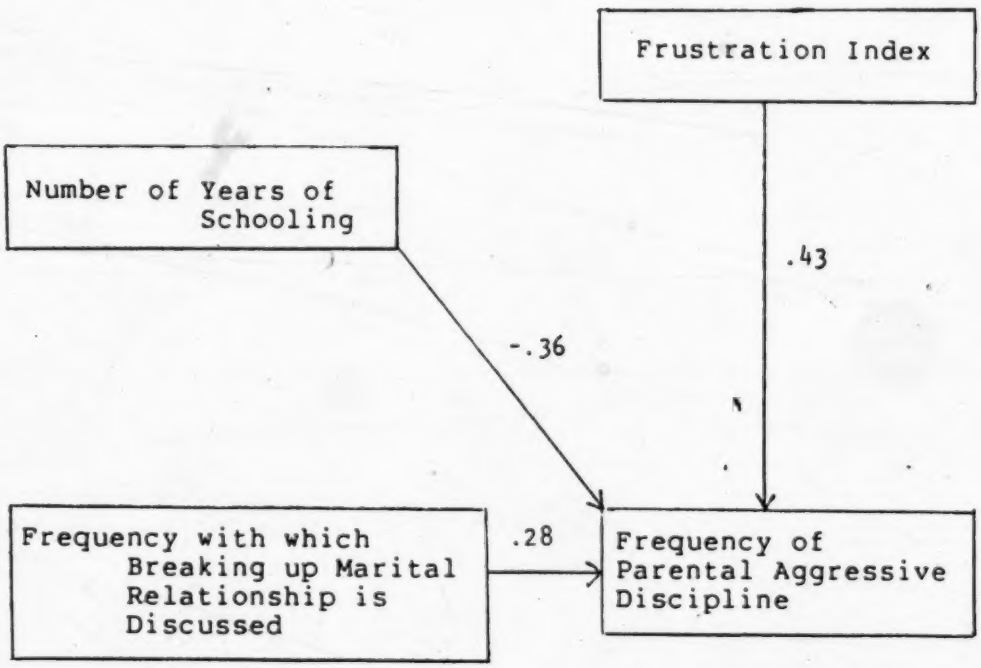
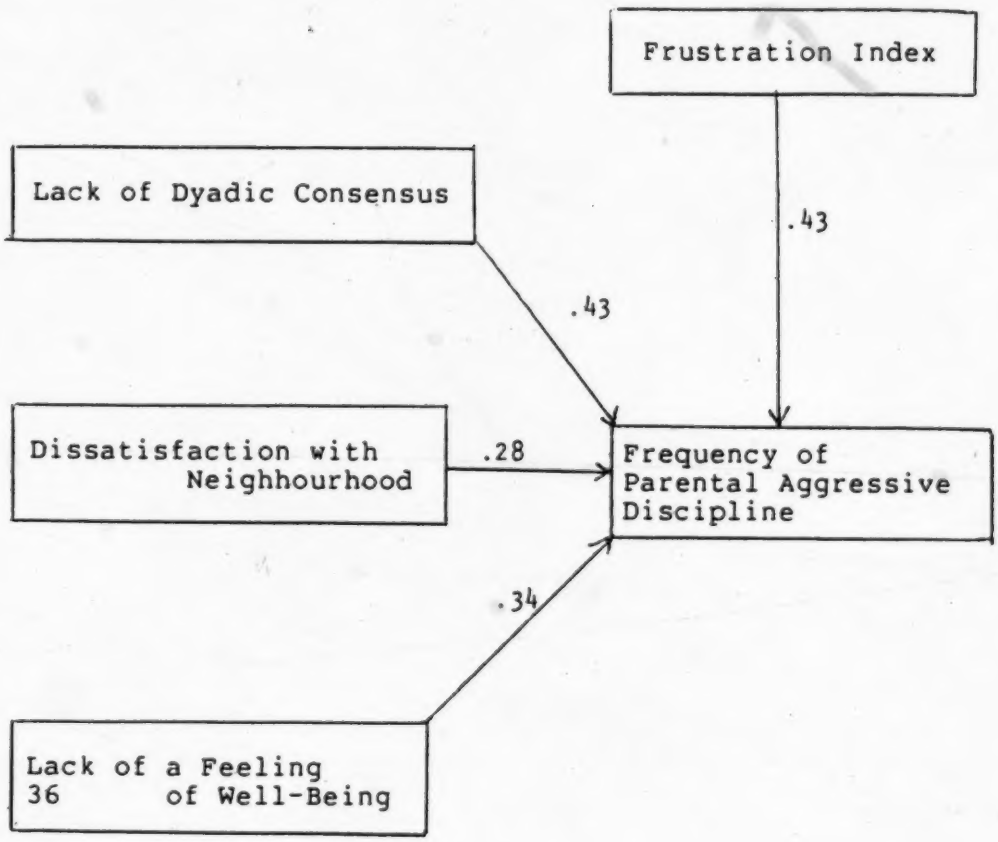


Figure 5: Frequency of Maternal Verbal Disciplinary Aggression as Related to Frustrators (Summary).



VI. Discussion

Many theorists and researchers have discussed the relationship between the type and accumulation of stressors and the individual's responses (e.g. Straus, Gelles & Steinmetz, 1980; Holms & Rache, 1967; Dollard et al, 1939) however, their primary concern has been with sudden and extreme stressors (major and accute stressors). Thus the uniqueness of this study lies in the investigation of more enduring and less extreme forms of stressors (minor and chronic stressors) or what have been called frustrators by Farrington (1980) and tensions by Scott and Howard (1970; Howard & Scott, 1965).

For both mothers and fathers the number of frustrators being experienced was significantly related to the frequency with which physical and verbal aggressive discipline were used. Therefore Blumberg's statement "When everything is getting on top of a mother she smacks more," (1964 - 1965: 149) is true, and the same statement could be made about fathers. According to Farrington (1980), it is important that the accumulated frustrations of everyday life stay within "tolerable limits." As this tolerable limit is surpassed, the parent may begin to displace aggression through the use of disciplinary practices. Thus parents seem able to cope with a normal amount of frustration, however, as the amount increases, so also does the frequency of parental aggressive discipline.

Most of the structural variables had no significant relationship to frequency of aggressive discipline. This is not surprising, as the range of many of these variables was not large. However, years of schooling of the mother was significantly related to the frequency with which physically aggressive discipline was used. This association did not hold however for fathers. Previous researchers (e.g. Straus, Gelles & Steinmetz, 1980; Gelles, 1972) have suggested that fathers who are high school dropouts or high school graduates, experience more stress than individuals from other educational levels, for a number of reasons. In North America, high school is a median education, thus high school dropouts and graduates find themselves working beside grammar school dropouts. Because of inadequate education these high school educated individuals cannot get into high status well paying jobs and thus frequently experience frustration. Although the high school dropout was at the bottom of the range of father education, in the present study, no significant relationship was found between level of education and frequency of physical and verbal aggressive discipline. This discrepancy in findings may be related to the income of the father. As was previously pointed out, all of the couples in this sample had incomes that were substantially above what was considered the poverty line in 1980. Thus, for the father at least, income may have been a sufficient reinforcer, reducing the frustration experienced as a result of level of education.

Straus, Gelles and Steinmetz (1980) found that the least violent mothers in their survey were those who had less than a grammar school education and those who had at least some college education. The reasons suggested for the frustration experienced in relation to education were similar to those given for men. The wife-mother with only high school education who is forced back into the job market, due to financial need, or even thinking of her options in the job market, is faced with the realization that well paying options do not exist for her, unlike more lucrative options available for men (e.g. construction). This is a frustrating experience which in the present investigation was related to more frequent aggressive discipline.

Age of the youngest child was used as a control variable. As a child becomes older and more able to reason and often more difficult (due to size and strength) to physically discipline, it would be expected that the frequency of physical discipline would decrease. This relationship was significant for fathers. It is suspected, although it was not tested, that as the child becomes older more reasoning is used in dealing with situations and more freedom and independence is given.

In addition to the index of family, life, and individual frustrators having a significant relationship to frequency of verbally and physically aggressive forms of discipline for both parents, several of the index variables

also had an independent association with frequency of disciplinary aggression. The family frustration variable found to have the most consistent relationship to frequency of both maternal and paternal aggressive discipline was lack of dyadic consensus. In three of the four cases, lack of dyadic consensus was positively associated with frequency of aggressive discipline, that is, as lack of dyadic consensus increased so also did frequency of the father's and mother's verbal aggression and the father's use of physical forms of aggression.

Many researchers have investigated the importance of actual marital and family consensus in relation to marital and family satisfaction, happiness, closeness and affect (e.g. Luckey, 1964a; 1964b; 1960a; 1960b; Stuckert, 1963; Adams, 1968; Angres, 1975; Bengtson, 1969; Jennings & Niemi, 1968; Kandel & Lesser, 1972; Thomas, 1971). Actual consensus was not found, in any of these studies, to be significantly related to the quality of marital or family relationships. However, when perceived consensus or congruence was measured (e.g. Luckey, 1964a; 1964b; 1960a; 1960b; Stuckert, 1963; Anderson, 1973; Kandel & Lesser, 1972; Angres, 1975; Felton et al, 1980) a significant relationship was found with family and marital quality variables. Thus, how much consensus an individual perceives in a situation seems to be important to the individual's relationships with marital and family members. The Spanier dyadic consensus subscale (1976) is an assessment of the degree to which each individual

perceives consensus with their spouse in important areas of life. Blockage of this perceived goal of consensus was in this investigation related to frequency of parental aggressive discipline.

Discussion of breaking up the marital relationship is, in many cases the result of marital disharmony. Both the father's verbal and mother's physical disciplinary aggressive behaviour were related to the frequency with which marital break up was discussed. As previously cited, many researchers have identified the discussion of divorce as a particularly frustrating and stressful experience for all concerned. Thus it is possible that the frustration each of the marriage partners is experiencing may be vented through more aggressive behaviours towards their children. However, the causal relationship in this relationship is not clear. Researchers (Whitehead, 1979; Porter & O'Leary, 1980) have noted that marital disharmony and discussion of divorce are associated with more antisocial and emotional disorders in children. Frequently, children withdraw or become hyperactive, eliciting more aggressive responses from their mothers and fathers. Thus the child's behaviour is an intervening variable influencing the frequency with which the child is aggressively disciplined.

A significant relationship existed between seeing the child as a blockage to marital intimacy and frequency of paternal verbal aggressive discipline, however, no such relationship existed for mothers. The presence of children

reduces the freedom, intimacy and satisfaction experienced within many marriage relationships. For example, Rosenblatt and Unanget (1974) in a study of couple intimacy found that couples in public places (e.g. shopping centers) who are accompanied by children, touch, smile and talk to each other less than couples without children. Although, the traditional roles of mother and father are changing this change is slow. According to a 1980 Gallup poll, only one-third of younger fathers participate in child care, however this is twice the participation of a decade ago (Hunt & Hunt, 1980). Still, the mother's primary role is seen as mother and housekeeper, while the father is primarily seen as the breadwinner (Katz, 1976; Lopata, 1971; Scanzoni, 1975). While there is an indication that men are becoming concerned about parental responsibilities (Nye, 1976), they still do not seem to be as involved in child care as the mother. This involvement of the mother reduces the amount of time the wife has for her husband and may cause what Winnicott (1975) terms **primary maternal preoccupation**. Thus the father is less involved in an intimate relationship. Therefore the father who views his child as a blockage to marital intimacy may be more apt to use verbally aggressive discipline.

The significance of family variables may be a result of the importance placed by couples and the society (Straus, 1978) on low conflict stable marital and family relationships. Often couples who perceive difficulties in

marital or family areas experience feelings of failure due to perceived inadequacies of self and other family members.

Life frustration variables were unrelated to the frequency of aggressive behaviours by fathers. However this finding may have been influenced by the strong representation of families with incomes that would be considered well above the 1980 Canadian poverty line. Lower income groups would be expected to experience the most frustration in most of the life frustration areas (e.g. job, standard of living, time for self).

However, for the mother, neighbourhood relationships were important, possibly because of the amount of time the traditional wife-mother and wife-mother employed parttime spend at home. Withdrawal from community and neighbourhood activities is acute today, as emphasis is placed on the need for family privacy. The home is regarded as a refuge from the tensions of everyday life in the outside social world (e.g. Shorter, 1977; Lasch, 1979). The neighbourhood should, if functioning properly, provide important services to the family such as cooperation, sympathy, mutual helpfulness and social support (e.g. Martin, 1970). The importance of the neighbourhood as a place for building social ties and support for especially the woman has been found in recent literature (e.g. Heller, Rasmassen, Cook & Wolosin, 1981). Seventy-five percent of the women in the present investigation were at home full-time or worked only part-time, thus it might be expected that dissatisfaction

with one's neighbourhood could be a frustrating experience. Consistent with this discussion, it was found that the frequency of verbal aggression increased in relation to dissatisfaction with one's neighbourhood, for women but not for men.

Level of well-being was the only individual variable found consistently to be related to parental aggressive disciplinary behaviour. Bradburn et al. (Bradburn & Caplovitz, 1965; Bradburn & Nolls, 1965) have been concerned with the individual's psychological reactions to the stresses and strains of everyday life. They found that well-being was positively correlated with needs fulfillment. The well-being variable was important in the present study. The less the father experienced a sense of well-being the more frequently he used physical and verbal forms of aggressive discipline. Mothers experiencing a lower sense of well-being were more frequently verbally aggressive. Thus if the respondent's overall happiness (Bradburn & Nolls, 1965) with life was blocked, the frequency of parental aggressive behaviours went up. Conversely a more positive or happy view of life produced less frequent aggressive disciplinary acts by parents.

Conclusion

This study is the first step towards an understanding of the relationship between minor, enduring frustrators and frequency of parental physical and verbal aggressive

discipline. The approach taken was that of analyzing husbands' and wives' frustration and aggression utilizing separate,aggregate data sets. At this first stage the emphasis has been on what Cromwell and Peterson (1981) have termed the elements of the system or the individual who functions as the basic unit within the family system. Broderick (1976) and Cromwell and Peterson (1981) have pointed out the importance of scaning the system at different levels (element, subsystem, system) and then integrating9 the information in order to gain a more holistic understanding of the characteristics of the family.

Thus, the family as a social system has independent parts which influence each other. Hill (1971), in discussing the incidence and consequences of the frustrator unemployment, identifies several aspects of the family system as important. One key variable was the interdependence of family members. Manipulating the behaviour of one member of a dyad has been found to be associated with corresponding behaviour changes in the other (Rosenfeld, 1965). This interdependence within systems has been identified as the result of system wholeness (Hall & Fagan, 1965). That is, every part of the family system is so related to other parts of the system that what one part is experiencing will influence what other parts experience.

If the experiences of the husband and wife are interdependent, it would be expected that frustration being experienced by the wife would influence the husband.

Conversely, it would be expected that frustration being experienced by the husband would influence the wife. Because of the complexity of the family system (Larson, 1974; Olson & Rabunsky, 1972) the next stage of investigation might be of the subsystems within the family sytem (husband-wife; parent-child).

Conceptually then, it has been argued that "each partner's actions and attributes are markedly influenced by the other's actions, views, and experiences in the relationship" (Levinger & Snoek, 1972:5). Many researchers have been interested in the impact of one spouse on the other spouse or what has been termed interdependence, reciprocity, congruency, consensus, perceived consensus and mutuality (1982; Hinde, 1978; Kelley, 1979; Klein, Jorgenson & Miller, 1978; Simmel, 1950; Levenger & Snoek, 1972; Turk & Bell, 1972; Larson, 1974; Brinkerhoff, 1976). In all cases pair relatedness has been found to be important to the understanding of family functioning. Thus patterned mutual action of the marital couple is an important unit of analysis.

The antecedent behaviour of the child is also important to consider. However the causal ordering of variables in the study of parent-child relationships as affected by parental frustration is questionable. Children are sensitive to frustrations experienced by their mothers and fathers (Whitehead, 1979; Porter & O'Leary, 1980) and may in many cases respond to parental frustration. For example, children

may become withdrawn or hyperactive. Aggressive responses by parents in this case may not be totally explained as catharsis, but may also be a response to the child's behaviour. Parental frustration is still influencing the frequency with which aggressive discipline is used, however, in this situation the child's behaviour is an intervening variable. Because there was no information on the antecedent behaviour of the child, this model was not tested in the present investigation. This is a question which needs further research.

Thus the next strategy for evaluating frustration as related to parental disciplinary aggression would be to investigate husband - wife and parent - child relationships. The measurement issue at this level of investigation becomes more complex and difficult. In the past, statistical methods for evaluating couple relationship variables have included: correlation scores, discrepancy scores, couple means, adding one partner's score to the other and typologies.

For the study of frustration and aggression some of these methods of measurement are more appropriate than others. Adding one partner's score to the other partner's score or calculating a couple mean have basic conceptual problems in any study. The question is, what does the summation score represent? Also, this type of analysis does not differentiate between couples with highly discrepant responses and those who are in agreement. For example, a couple with truth scores of 1 and 7 (total=8; mean=4) would

be given the same score as a couple with truth scores of 4 and 4 (total=8; mean=4).

Correlation studies of couple interrelatedness also have a fundamental problem. It is possible for a couple to be highly correlated on an issue while at the same time having highly discrepant views. That is, husbands may value truth while wives do not and yet their couple scores may co-vary yielding a high correlation score.

Discrepancy scores (i.e. substracting one score from the other and taking the absolute value as a measure of couple relatedness) have been found to be quite useful, however this method has one basic flaw. It is not possible using the absolute value to determine if it is the hushand or wife who is high or low. Thus the only information obtained when utilizing discrepancy scores is the amount of difference between husbands and wives.

One measurement technique that could be used in the analysis of couple interrelatedness (as related to parental frustration-aggression) is a typology. According to Olson (1981) typologies classify and describe couples and families as opposed to variables, summarize characteristics within a particular type, determine criteria for fitting a couple or family into a particular type and distinguish and describe differences between types. For example, by using a median split, based on the individual's level of frustration, four types of frustrated couples could be specified, including: 1) father low frustration, mother low frustration, 2) father

low frustration, mother high frustration, 3) father high frustration, mother low frustration, and, 4) father high frustration, mother high frustration. Based on each of these types, dummy variables could be formed and regressions run. This typological study would give the researcher an indication of what couple type would be most apt to be physically or verbally aggressive more frequently in disciplinary practice.

In addition to self report studies, recent researchers and theorists have emphasized the importance of using observational methods. Markman, Notarius, Stephen and Smith (1981) list several reasons supporting the belief that behavioural observation is important: 1) self and other reports are seldom accurate, 2) observation allows the observer to describe the sequence of of behaviours, 3) can be used to evaluate the outcome of behavioural therapy, and, 4) may be used to study couples in naturalistic settings. The theories predominant in the study of dyadic interaction are exchange, social learning and systems. In addition, observational study may, as was pointed out by Olson(1978), include insider (relationship participants) observations or outsider (external observer) observation or both. It has been suggested (Olson, 1978) that the use of both insider and outsider information facilitates a more complete and accurate perspective of the reality that exists within the family.

Straus (1981) in his discussion of family violence, points out several ways in which observational methods can be used in the study of family violence.[8] First, if parents are identified as utilizing physical and verbal aggressive discipline more frequently than other families, these families may be studied. Because the family has already been identified as more aggressive the researcher can evaluate the amount and type of frustration the couple is experiencing and their resources for meeting such frustration. In addition, games can be used to induce family frustration. SIMFAM, is a puzzle that is played with balls and pushers. The purpose of SIMFAM is to simulate crisis in order to view the balance of power, communication and the interpersonal supportiveness of family members (Kolb & Straus, 1974; Straus & Tallman, 1971; Straus, 1968). It is possible in this way to subject families to frustration, as Straus states, "Games legitimize frustration because, by definition, games involve chance or other things over which the player has no control and which can cause the player to do well or poorly." (Straus, 1981:280).

However, there are many obstacles to a true observational analysis of the aggressive behaviour within the home. One of the greatest problems is the social desirability associated with not using aggressive forms of

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[8]It should be noted that Straus includes physical aggression as a form of family violence. Straus in his article on stategies for ethical observational study of family violence uses the example of husband - wife violence. His ideas are applied in this discussion to the observational study of aggressive discipline, as related to parental frustration.

discipline. It has been found that the aggressive behaviours of, especially women, (Straus, 1980) decrease outside of the home. Therefore a totally accurate evaluation through observation is difficult if not impossible.

Thus there are several considerations for future research. The next stage of study might be the investigation of subsystems within the family system, followed by observational study of these subsystems.

The scope of this paper was to investigate parental frustration and its relationship to frequency of parental aggressive discipline. The study of aggressive child discipline is multifaceted and the attempt in the present study was only to investigate one reason (i.e. frustration) for aggressive discipline and one response to frustration. Based on the findings, it may be suggested that a relationship does exist between the number and type of frustrators being experienced by the parent and the frequency with which physcally or verbally aggressive forms of discipline are used by parents.

Appendix A

Correlations among, Structural Variables, Family Variables, Life Vaiables, Individual Variables and Frequency of Aggressive Discipline for Fathers and Mothers.

Table A.1: Correlations among Dissatisfaction Index, Structural Variables and the Frequency of Physical & Verbal Aggressive Discipline for the Father Sample.

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
(1) Frustration Index	1.00	.3524**	.3141**	-.1402	.0129	-.1029	.0625	-.0430
(2) Physical Agression		1.00	.5910**	-.3468**	.2005	-.1028	-.0466	-.1153
(3) Verbal Agression			1.00	-.1595	.1214	.0217	-.2157*	-.0246
(4) Age of Youngest Child				1.00	-.0166	.1032	-.0306	.0873
(5) Crowding					1.00	-.0878	-.1890	-.1105
(6) Dual Working						1.00	.0588	.2142*
(7) Family Income							1.00	.3019**
(8) Years of Schooling								1.00

* Significant at or beyond the .05 level

** Significant at or beyond the .01 level

Table A.2: Correlations among Family Dissatisfiers, Age and Frequency of Physical & Verbal Aggressive Discipline for the Father Sample.

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
(1) Dissatisfaction with Family Life	1.00	.0805	.3663**	.0833	.1864*	.1261	.0116	.0404	-.2866**
(2) Lack of Marital Consensus		1.00	.1004	.3079**	.0396	.0861	.5463**	.6309**	-.1257
(3) Unhappiness in Relationship			1.00	-.0315	.3423**	.1134	.0386	.0776	-.0277
(4) Frequency with which Breaking up Relationship is Discussed				1.00	-.1326	-.1928	.3687**	.4029**	-.1234
(5) Child Perceived as a Blockage to Marital Intimacy					1.00	.4489**	.0841	.2384*	-.2371*
(6) Child Perceived as a Blockage Couple Freedom						1.00	.0281	.1551	-.2078*
(7) Physical Aggression							1.00	.5910**	-.3467
(8) Verbal Aggression								1.00	-.1595
(9) Age of Youngest Child									1.00

* Significant at or beyond the .05 level

** Significant at or beyond the .01 level

Table A.3: Correlations among Life Dissatisfiers Age and Frequency of Physical & Verbal Aggressive Discipline for the Father Sample.

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
(1) Dissatisfaction with Neighbourhood	1.00	.1616	.2963**	.2668*	.1806	.1587	.1017	.0571
(2) Dissatisfaction with Non-work Activities		1.00	.4800**	.3114**	.2838**	.1218	.1437	.2813**
(3) Dissatisfaction with Friendships			1.00	.4077**	.2645*	.1831	.0027	.2678*
(4) Dissatisfaction with Standard of Living				1.00	.5941**	.0505	.1301	.1559
(5) Dissatisfaction with Job					1.00	.0951	.0122	.4228**
(6) Physical Aggression						1.00	.5910**	-.3467**
(7) Verbal Aggression							1.00	-.1595
(8) Age of Youngest Child								1.00

* Significant at or beyond the .05 level

** Significant at or beyond the .01 level

Table A.4: Correlations among Individual Dissatisfiers, Age and the Frequency of Physical & Verbal Aggressive Discipline for the Father Sample.

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
(1) Dissatisfaction with Health	1.00	.3475**	.1008	.0187	.0479	.0557	.0318
(2) Dissatisfaction with Amount of Time for Self		1.00	.0996	.5981**	.0363	.1892	-.0298
(3) Lack of a feeling of Well-Being			1.00	.1857	.3393**	.3990**	-.0472
(4) Work Home Conflict				1.00	.1214	.1346	.0590
(5) Physical Aggression					1.00	.5910**	-.3468**
(6) Verbal Aggression						1.00	-.1595
(7) Age of Youngest Child							1.00

* Significant at or beyond the .05 level

** Significant at or beyond the .01 level

Table A.5: Correlations among Structural Variables, the Dissatisfaction index and the Frequency of Physical & Verbal Aggressive Discipline for the Mother Sample.

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
(1) Frustration Index	1.00	.4503**	.3825**	.1965	-.0708	.1101	.0713	.2709*	-.2632*
(2) Physical Aggression		1.00	.4921**	.3343**	-.0549	-.1621	.0616	-.2790*	.0616
(3) Verbal Aggression			1.00	-.1948	.0692	-.0509	.0330	-.1064	.1686
(4) Age of Youngest Child				1.00	-.0166	.1032	-.0304	-.1044	-.1044
(5) Crowding					1.00	-.0878	.1890	-.0657	.1294
(6) Dual Working						1.00	.0588	-.0781	-.4996**
(7) Family Income							1.00	.2106*	-.0932
(8) Years of Schooling								1.00	-.1212
(9) Housewife									1.00

* Significant at or beyond the .05 level

** Significant at or beyond the .01 level

Table A.6: Correlations among Family Dissatisfiers, Years of Schooling and Frequency of Physical & Verbal Aggressive Discipline for the Mother Sample.

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
(1) Dissatisfaction with Family Life	1.00	.3368**	.4466**	.1656	.2133*	.1951	.2388*	.2032*	-.0354
(2) Lack of Marital Consensus		1.00	.4164**	.5242**	.1226	.0237	.4508**	.5047**	-.1515
(3) Unhappiness in Relationship			1.00	.4869**	.0724	.1851	.4270**	.3769**	-.1990
(4) Frequency with which Breaking up Relationship is Discussed				1.00	-.0214	.0279	.4719**	.2721**	-.1790
(5) Child Perceived as a Blockage to Marital Intimacy					1.00	.4201**	.0156	.2588*	.0187
(6) Child Perceived as a Blockage to Freeedom						1.00	.1025	.0711	.0839
(7) Physical Aggression							1.00	.4921**	-.3393**
(8) Verbal Aggression								1.00	-.1948
(9) Years of Schooling									1.00

* Significant at or beyond the .05 level

** Significant at or beyond the .01 level

Table A.7: Correlations among Life Dissatisfiers Years of Schooling and Frequency of Physical & Verbal Aggressive Discipline for the Mother Sample.

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
(1) Dissatisfaction with Neighbourhood	1.00	-.0655	.1926	.0905	.0490	.0556	.3032**	.0923
(2) Dissatisfaction with Non-work Activities		1.00	.2735**	.1635	.1011	.2102*	.0596	-.0530
(3) Dissatisfaction with Friendships			1.00	.5406**	.0411	.2346*	.1499	-.0689
(4) Dissatisfaction with Standard of Living				1.00	.1917	.2168*	.0680	.1305
(5) Dissatisfaction with Job					1.00	.1366	.1859	-.1307
(6) Physical Aggression						1.00	.4921**	-.3343**
(7) Verbal Aggression							1.00	-.1948
(8) Years of Schooling								1.00

* Significant at or beyond the .05 level

** Significant at or beyond the .01 level

Table A.8: Correlations among Individual Variables, Years of Schooling and Physical & Verbal Aggressive Discipline for the Mother Sample.

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
(1) Dissatisfaction with Health	1.00	.3384**	.2504*	.0923	.2933**	.2850*	-.0487
(2) Dissatisfaction with Amount of Time for Self		1.00	.0068	.0904	.0690	.0731	-.0204
(3) Lack of a feeling of Well-Being			1.00	-.1646	.3220**	.3787**	-.0781
(4) Work Home Conflict				1.00	-.0617	.0015	-.2022*
(5) Physical Aggression					1.00	.4921**	-.3393**
(6) Verbal Aggression						1.00	-.1948
(7) Years of Schooling							1.00

* Significant at or beyond the .05 level

** Significant at or beyond the .01 level

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Appendix B

Composite Tables of Two Variable Interactions of Structural, Family, Life and Individual Variables as Related to Frequency of Verbal and Physical Aggressive Discipline by Fathers and Mothers.

Table B.1: Composite' Multiple Regression Table of Structural Interaction Variables as Related to the of Maternal Physically Aggressive Discipline.

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Years of Schooling X Age of Youngest Child	-.0039	-.0626	.276	.0029
Years of Schooling X Crowding	-.1721	-.1894	2.252	.0284
Years of Schooling X Dualwork	-.0780	-.1705	1.403	.0202
Years of Schooling X Housewife	-.0342	-.0765	.292	.0045
Years of Schooling X Family Income	-.0052	-.2320	3.690	.0421
Age of Youngest Child X Dual Work	-.0471	-.2139	2.496	.0423
Age of Youngest Child X Family Income	-.0205	-.1115	.969	.0139
Age of Youngest Child X Crowding	-.3915	-.0626	.181	.0029
Age of Youngest Child X Housewife	-.0824	-.1972	1.856	.0363
Dual Work X Family Income	-.0769	-.1976	2.034	.0228
Dual Work X Crowding	-.9958	-.0998	.490	.0079
Dual Work X Housewife	-	-	-	

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Family Income X Crowding	-.0816	-.1898	2.480	.0277
Family Income X Housewife	-.0240	-.1037	.586	.0098
Crowding X Housewife	-.7970	-.0886	.378	.0070

Note[1]: These two variable interaction predictor variables were run separately controlling for main effect variables (except when multi-collinearity problems existed).

Note[2]: R^2 in the body of this table is a measure of the additional variance explained by each of the variables.

Table B.2: Composite' Multiple Regression Table of Structural Interaction Variables as Related to the of Maternal Verbally Aggressive Discipline.

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Years of Schooling X Age of Youngest Child	-.0294	-.1687	1.669	.0254
Years of Schooling X Crowding	-.0262	-.0263	.097	.0007
Years of Schooling X Dualwork	.0436	.0871	.337	.0057
Years of Schooling X Housewife	.0651	.1331	.769	.0150
Years of Schooling X Family Income	-.0025	-.1023	.628	.0121
Age of Youngest Child X Dual Work	-.0036	-.0558	.011	.0002
Age of Youngest Child X Family Income	-.0018	-.2007	2.399	.0366
Age of Youngest Child X Crowding	-.0514	-.1665	1.565	.0292
Age of Youngest Child X Housewife	-	-	-	-
Dual Work X Family Income	.0128	.0300	.041	.0007
Dual Work X Crowding	.7324	.0670	.199	.0035
Dual Work X Housewife	-	-	-	

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Family Income X Crowding	-.0283	-.0602	.213	.0039
Family Income X Housewife	-	-	-	-
Crowding X Housewife	.7323	.1757	1.860	.0216

Note[1]: These two variable interaction predictor variables were run separately controlling for main effect variables (except when multi-collinearity problems existed).

Note[2]: R^2 in the body of this table is a measure of the additional variance explained by each of the variables.

Table B.3: Composite' Multiple Regression Table of Structural Interaction Variables as Related to the of Paternal Physically Aggressive Discipline.

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Years of Schooling X Age of Youngest Child	-.0044	-.1837	2.292	.0379
Years of Schooling X Crowding	.0984	.1058	.696	.0101
Years of Schooling X Dualwork	-.0198	-.0504	.156	.0026
Years of Schooling X Family Income	-	-	-	-
Age of Youngest Child X Dual Work	-.0264	-.1354	1.020	.0224
Age of Youngest Child X Family Income	-.0018	-.2457	3.901	.0645
Age of Youngest Child X Crowding	-	-	-	
Dual Work X Family Income	-.0152	-.0553	.198	.0042
Dual Work X Crowding	-.4501	-.0510	.157	.0024
Family Income X Crowding	-.0410	-.0817	.153	.0008

Note': These two variable interaction predictor variables were run separately controlling for main effect variables (except when multi-collinearity problems existed).

Note[2]: R^2 in the body of this table is a measure of the additional variance explained by each of the variables.

Table B.4: Composite' Multiple Regression Table of Structural Interaction Variables as Related to the of Paternal Verbally Aggressive Discipline.

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Years of Schooling X Age of Youngest Child	-.0017	-.1535	1.217	.0148
Years of Schooling X Crowding	.0782	.0830	.403	.0072
Years of Schooling X Dual Work	.0363	.0914	.473	.0064
Years of Schooling X Family Income	.0011	.0578	.198	.0033
Age of Youngest Child X Dual Work	-	-	-	-
Age of Youngest Child X Family Income	-.0005	-.0650	.247	.0041
Age of Youngest Child X Crowding	-.0432	-.1825	1.934	.0307
Dual Work X Family Income	.0115	.0330	.066	.0011
Dual Work X Crowding	.5081	.0568	.184	.0041

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Family Income X Crowding	.0272	.0705	.262	.0036

Note[1]: These two variable interaction predictor variables were run separately controlling for main effect variables (except when multi-collinearity problems existed).

Note[2]: R^2 in the body of this table is a measure of the additional variance explained by each of the variables.

Table B.5: Composite' Multiple Regression Table of Family Dissatisfaction Variables as Related to the frequency of Maternal Physically Aggressive Discipline.

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Breaking-Up Discussed X Years of Schooling	.0225	.1979	2.019	.0259
Breaking-Up Discussed X Lack of Dyadic Consensus	.0230	.2185	2.138	.0227
Breaking-Up Discussed X Unhappiness in marriage	.0281	.1818	1.395	.0142
Breaking-Up Discussed X Dissatisfaction with Family Life	.0214	.1311	1.035	.0115
Breaking-Up Discussed X Child Blockage to Couple Freedom	.0196	.0555	.178	.0023
Breaking-Up Discussed X Child Blockage to Couple Intimacy	.0149	.0235	.017	.0002
Years of Schooling X Lack of Dyadic Consensus	.0088	.1612	.868	.0171
Years of Schooling X Unhappiness in Marriage	-	-	-	-
Years of Schooling X Dissatisfaction with Family Life	-.0156	-.0794	.414	.0055
Years of Schooling X Child Blockage to Couple Freedom	-.0174	-.1104	.698	.0066

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Years of Schooling X Child Blockage to Couple Intimacy	-.0185	-.1384	1.270	.0090
Lack of Dyadic Consensus X Unhappiness in Marriage	.0161	.0639	.563	.0028
Lack of Dyadic Consensus X Dissatisfaction with Family Life	.0685	.0479	.077	.0015
Lack of Dyadic Consensus X Child Blockage to Couple Freedom	.0398	.0484	.096	.0011
Lack of Dyadic Consensus X Child Blockage to Couple Intimacy	-	-	-	-
Unhappiness in Marriage X Dissatisfaction with Family Life	.0096	.1938	2.345	.0323
Unhappiness in Marriage X Child Blockage to Couple Freedom	.0087	.2013	2.223	.0629
Unhappiness in Marriage X Child Blockage to Couple Intimacy	-.0013	-.0278	.036	.0004
Dissatisfaction with Family Life X Child Blockage to Couple Freedom	.0824	.0930	.429	.0043
Dissatisfaction with Family Life X Child Blockage to Couple Intimacy	.0366	.0426	.105	.0013

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Child Blockage to Couple Freedom X Child Blockage to Couple Intimacy	-.0227	-.0411	.131	.0015

Note[1]: These two variable interaction predictor variables were run separately controlling for main effect variables (except when multi-collinearity problems existed).

Note[2]: R^2 in the body of this table is a measure of the additional variance explained by each of the variables.

Table B.6: Composite' Multiple Regression Table of Family Dissatisfaction Variables as Related to the frequency of Maternal Verbally Aggressive Discipline.

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Breaking-Up Discussed X Lack of Dyadic Consensus	.0203	.1759	1.837	.0273
Breaking-Up Discussed X Unhappiness in marriage	.0024	.0737	.316	.0036
Breaking-Up Discussed X Dissatisfaction with Family Life	.0495	.0617	.194	.0023
Breaking-Up Discussed X Child Blockage to Couple Freedom	.0278	.0402	.084	.0010
Breaking-Up Discussed X Child Blockage to Couple Intimacy	.1444	.2083	1.324	.0145
Lack of Dyadic Consensus X Unhappiness in Marriage	.0978	.1157	1.137	.0133
Lack of Dyadic Consensus X Dissatisfaction with Family Life	-	-	-	-
Lack of Dyadic Consensus X Child Blockage to Couple Freedom	.0655	.2782	3.519	.0357
Lack of Dyadic Consensus X Child Blockage to Couple Intimacy	.0974	.0536	.151	.0018
Unhappiness in Marriage X Dissatisfaction with Family Life	.0092	.1712	1.707	.0138

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Unhappiness in Marriage X Child Blockage to Couple Freedom	.0100	.2110	2.583	.0509
Unhappiness in Marriage X Child Blockage to Couple Intimacy	.0116	.2219	2.193	.0268
Dissatisfaction with Family Life X Child Blockage to Couple Freedom	-.1611	-.1660	1.394	.0201
Dissatisfaction with Family Life X Child Blockage to Couple Intimacy	.2094	.2117	2.660	.0238
Child Blockage to Couple Freedom X Child Blockage to Couple Intimacy	.0558	.0924	.625	.0081

Note[1]: These two variable interaction predictor variables were run separately controlling for main effect variables (except when multi-collinearity problems existed).

Note[2]: R^2 in the body of this table is a measure of the additional variance explained by each of the variables.

Table B.7: Composite' Multiple Regression Table of Family Dissatisfaction Variables as Related to the frequency of Paternal Physically Aggressive Discipline.

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Breaking-Up Discussed X Age of Youngest Child	.0014	.0445	.168	.0017
Breaking-Up Discussed X Lack of Dyadic Consensus	.0513	.2501	3.803	.0724
Breaking-Up Discussed X Unhappiness in Marriage	.0416	.2398	3.563	.0542
Breaking-Up Discussed X Dissatisfaction with Family Life	.0289	.1520	1.818	.0223
Breaking-Up Discussed X Child Blockage to Couple Freedom	.0285	.1585	1.854	.0195
Breaking-Up Discussed X Child Blockage to Couple Intimacy	.0233	.1243	1.192	.0161
Age of Youngest Child X Lack of Dyadic Consensus	-.0032	-.1764	2.060	.0350
Age of Youngest Child X Unhappiness in Marriage	-.0008	-.1078	.440	.0065
Age of Youngest Child X Dissatisfaction with Family Life	-.0062	-.1286	1.419	.0182
Age of Youngest Child X Child Blockage to Couple Freedom	-.0093	-.0978	.502	.0289

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Age of Youngest Child X Child Blockage to Couple Intimacy	-.0087	-.0923	.417	.0057
Lack of Dyadic Consensus X Unhappiness in Marriage	.0022	.1239	.988	.0392
Lack of Dyadic Consensus X Dissatisfaction with Family Life	.0194	.0711	.211	.0015
Lack of Dyadic Consensus X Child Blockage to Couple Freedom	.0496	.2441	3.701	.0553
Lack of Dyadic Consensus X Child Blockage to Couple Intimacy	.0473	.1619	2.220	.0177
Unhappiness in Marriage X Dissatisfaction with Family Life	.0014	.0308	.079	.0008
Unhappiness in Marriage X Child Blockage to Couple Freedom	-.0030	-.0673	.343	.0033
Unhappiness in Marriage X Child Blockage to Couple Intimacy	.0038	.0824	.377	.0053
Dissatisfaction with Family Life X Child Blockage to Couple Freedom	.0322	.0403	.086	.0010

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Dissatisfaction with Family Life X Child Blockage to Couple Intimacy	.0822	.1158	.937	.0054
Child Blockage to Couple Freedom X Child Blockage to Couple Intimacy	-	-	-	-

Note[1]: These two variable interaction predictor variables were run separately controlling for main effect variables (except when multi-collinearity problems existed).

Note[2]: R^2 in the body of this table is a measure of the additional variance explained by each of the variables.

Table B.8: Composite' Multiple Regression Table of Family Dissatisfaction Variables as Related to the frequency of Paternal Verbally Aggressive Discipline.

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Breaking-Up Discussed X Lack of Dyadic Consensus	.0412	.2216	3.638	.0624
Breaking-Up Discussed X Unhappiness in Marriage	-.0215	-.0898	.894	.0049
Breaking-Up Discussed X Dissatisfaction with Family Life	-.0582	-.2685	.407	.0023
Breaking-Up Discussed X Child Blockage to Couple Freedom	-.0409	-.1400	1.502	.0123
Breaking-Up Discussed X Child Blockage to Couple Intimacy	-.0111	-.0585	.018	.0002
Lack of Dyadic Consensus X Unhappiness in Marriage	.0019	.0777	.533	.0061
Lack of Dyadic Consensus X Dissatisfaction with Family Life	.1474	.0617	1.288	.0082
Lack of Dyadic Consensus X Child Blockage to Couple Freedom	.0145	.0702	.202	.0027
Lack of Dyadic Consensus X Child Blockage to Couple Intimacy	.0456	.1561	2.155	.0158
Unhappiness in Marriage X Dissatisfaction with Family Life	-.0043	-.0905	.832	.0047

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Unhappiness in Marriage X Child Blockage to Couple Freedom	.0028	.0169	.026	.0002
Unhappiness in Marriage X Child Blockage to Couple Intimacy	-.0215	-.0898	.894	.0049
Dissatisfaction with Family Life X Child Blockage to Couple Freedom	-.0776	-.0959	.603	.0036
Dissatisfaction with Family Life X Child Blockage to Couple Intimacy	.0162	.0677	.407	.0016
Child Blockage to Couple Freedom X Child Blockage to Couple Intimacy	.0819	.1804	.950	.0158

Note[1]: These two variable interaction predictor variables were run separately controlling for main effect variables (except when multi-collinearity problems existed).

Note[2]: R^2 in the body of this table is a measure of the additional variance explained by each of the variables.

Table B.9: Composite' Multiple Regression Table of Life Dissatisfaction Variables as Related to the frequency of Maternal Physically Aggressive Discipline.

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Years of Schooling X Dissatisfaction with Friendships	-.0127	-.0875	.328	.0043
Years of Schooling X Dissatisfaction with Standard of Living	-.0158	-.1119	.511	.0074
Years of Schooling X Dissatisfaction with Non-Work Activities	-	-	-	-
Years of Schooling X Dissatisfaction with Job	.0162	.0261	.038	.0006
Years of Schooling X Dissatisfaction with Neighbourhood	-.0113	-.0825	.374	.0061
Dissatisfaction with Friendships X Dissatisfaction with Standard of Living	-.2190	-.0877	.428	.0069
Dissatisfaction with Friendships X Dissatisfaction with Non-Work Activities	.1566	.2642	3.859	.1162
Dissatisfaction with Friendships X Dissatisfaction with Job	.0166	.1945	2.213	.0467

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Dissatisfaction with Friendships X Dissatisfaction with Neighbourhood	.0786	.1074	.627	.0094
Dissatisfaction with Standard of Living X Dissatisfaction with Non-Work Activities	.0682	.1074	.527	.0081
Dissatisfaction with Standard of Living X Dissatisfaction with Job	-.0185	-.1384	1.270	.0090
Dissatisfaction with Standard of Living X Dissatisfaction with Neighbourhood	-	-	-	-
Dissatisfaction with Non-Work Activities X Dissatisfaction with Job	.0601	.2286	3.358	.0679
Dissatisfaction with Non-Work Activities X Dissatisfaction with Neighbourhood	.0958	.1544	1.444	.0603
Dissatisfaction with Job X Dissatisfaction with Neighbourhood	.0524	.1896	2.252	.0236

Note[1]: These two variable interaction predictor variables were run separately controlling for main effect variables (except when multi-collinearity problems existed).

Note[2]: R^2 in the body of this table is a measure of the additional variance explained by each of the variables.

Table B.10: Composite' Multiple Regression Table of Life Dissatisfaction Variables as Related to the frequency of Maternal Verbally Aggressive Discipline.

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Dissatisfaction with Friendships X Dissatisfaction with Standard of Living	.1669	.2548	3.469	.0800
Dissatisfaction with Friendships X Dissatisfaction with Non-Work Activities	.1080	.1663	1.484	.0327
Dissatisfaction with Friendships X Dissatisfaction with Job	.0789	.2108	2.771	.0282
Dissatisfaction with Friendships X Dissatisfaction with Neighbourhood	.1251	.1694	1.695	.0278
Dissatisfaction with Standard of Living X Dissatisfaction with Non-Work Activities	.0644	.0926	.400	.0059
Dissatisfaction with Standard of Living X Dissatisfaction with Job	.0698	.1949	.821	.0052
Dissatisfaction with Standard of Living X Dissatisfaction with Neighbourhood	.0808	.1353	.588	.0146
Dissatisfaction with Non-Work Activities X Dissatisfaction with Job	.0665	.2310	3.376	.0643

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Dissatisfaction with Non-Work Activities X Dissatisfaction with Neighbourhood	-	-	-	-
Dissatisfaction with Job X Dissatisfaction with Neighbourhood	.0649	.1450	.682	.0150

Note[1]: These two variable interaction predictor variables were run separately controlling for main effect variables (except when multi-collinearity problems existed).

Note[2]: R^2 in the body of this table is a measure of the additional variance explained by each of the variables.

Table B.11: Composite' Multiple Regression Table of Life Dissatisfaction Variables as Related to the frequency of Paternal Physically Aggressive Discipline.

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Age of Youngest Child X Dissatisfaction with Neighbourhood	-.0099	-.1750	1.294	.0442
Age of Youngest Child X Dissatisfaction with Standard of Living	-.0111	-.2738	2.904	.0571
Age of Youngest Child X Dissatisfaction with Non-Work Activities	-.0098	-.2566	2.977	.0722
Age of Youngest Child X Dissatisfaction with Job	.0038	.1464	1.289	.0040
Age of Youngest Child X Dissatisfaction with Friendships	.0224	.0966	.427	.0040
Dissatisfaction with Friendships X Dissatisfaction with Standard of Living	-.0737	-.1524	.776	.0085
Dissatisfaction with Friendships X Dissatisfaction with Non-Work Activities	-.0538	-.1166	.636	.0046
Dissatisfaction with Friendships X Dissatisfaction with Job	-.0767	-.2116	1.055	.0042

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Dissatisfaction with Friendships X Dissatisfaction with Neighbourhood	.0136	.0213	.018	.0002
Dissatisfaction with Standard of Living X Dissatisfaction with Non-Work Activities	.0377	.0769	.196	.0046
Dissatisfaction with Standard of Living X Dissatisfaction with Job	.0388	.1255	.782	.0110
Dissatisfaction with Standard of Living X Dissatisfaction with Neighbourhood	-.1725	-.2836	2.965	.0196
Dissatisfaction with Non-Work Activities X Dissatisfaction with Job	-.0173	-.0293	.024	.0003
Dissatisfaction with Non-Work Activities X Dissatisfaction with Neighbourhood	.1038	.1637	1.167	.0160
Dissatisfaction with Job X Dissatisfaction with Neighbourhood	-	-	-	-

Note[1]: These two variable interaction predictor variables were run separately controlling for main effect variables (except when multi-collinearity problems existed).

Note[2]: R^2 in the body of this table is a measure of the additional variance explained by each of the variables.

Table B.12: Composite[1] Multiple Regression Table of Life Dissatisfaction Variables as Related to the frequency of Paternal Verbally Aggressive Discipline.

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Dissatisfaction with Friendships X Dissatisfaction with Standard of Living	-.0315	-.0644	.125	.0020
Dissatisfaction with Friendships X Dissatisfaction with Non-Work Activities	.0692	.1480	.936	.0345
Dissatisfaction with Friendships X Dissatisfaction with Job	-.0890	-.2421	1.262	.0121
Dissatisfaction with Friendships X Dissatisfaction with Neighbourhood	-.0607	-.0940	.338	.0054
Dissatisfaction with Standard of Living X Dissatisfaction with Non-Work Activities	.1192	.2402	1.690	.0372
Dissatisfaction with Standard of Living X Dissatisfaction with Job	.0266	.0851	.309	.0050
Dissatisfaction with Standard of Living X Dissatisfaction with Neighbourhood	.0728	.1182	.614	.0050
Dissatisfaction with Non-Work Activities X Dissatisfaction with Job	.0568	.1531	.559	.0324

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Dissatisfaction with Non-Work Activities X Dissatisfaction with Neighbourhood	.1142	.1780	1.232	.0313
Dissatisfaction with Job X Dissatisfaction with Neighbourhood	-.0109	-.0235	.016	.0002

Note[1]: These two variable interaction predictor variables were run separately controlling for main effect variables (except when multi-collinearity problems existed).

Note[2]: R^2 in the body of this table is a measure of the additional variance explained by each of the variables.

Table B.13: Composite' Multiple Regression Table of Individual Dissatisfaction Variables as Related to the frequency of Maternal Physically Aggressive Discipline.

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Years of Schooling X Dissatisfaction with Health	.0200	.1403	.665	.0137
Years of Schooling X Lack of a Feeling of Well-Being	.0081	.1220	.458	.0101
Years of Schooling X Difficulty Coordinating Work and Home Life	-.0051	-.0855	.368	.0069
Years of Schooling X Dissatisfaction with Amount of Time for Self	-.0059	-.0601	.124	.0042
Dissatisfaction with Health X Lack of a Feeling of Well-Being	-.0259	-.2189	1.287	.0025
Dissatisfacion with Health X Difficulty Coordinating Work and Home Life	-.0112	-.0450	.067	.0010
Dissatisfacion with Health X Dissatisfaction with Amount of Time for Self	-.0207	-.0613	.039	.0010
Lack of a Feeling of Well-Being X Difficulty Coordinating Work and Home Life	.0019	.0221	.020	.0003
Lack of a Feeling of Well-Being X Dissatisfaction with Amount of Time for Self	.0025	.0221	.020	.0025

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Difficulty Coordinating Work and Home Life X Dissatisfaction with Amount of Time for Self	-	-	-	-

Note[1]: These two variable interaction predictor variables were run separately controlling for main effect variables (except when multi-collinearity problems existed).

Note[2]: R^2 in the body of this table is a measure of the additional variance explained by each of the variables.

Table B.14: Composite[1] Multiple Regression Table of Individual Dissatisfaction Variables as Related to the Frequency of Maternal Verbally Aggressive Discipline.

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Dissatisfaction with Health X Lack of a Feeling of Well-Being	.0325	.2501	1.466	.0334
Dissatisfacion with Health X Difficulty Coordinating Work and Home Life	-	-	-	-
Dissatisfacion with Health X Dissatisfaction with Amount of Time for Self	.0543	.1467	.841	.0192
Lack of a Feeling of Well-Being X Difficulty Coordinating Work and Home Life	.0134	.1426	.860	.0059
Lack of a Feeling of Well-Being X Dissatisfaction with Amount of Time for Self	-	-	-	-
Difficulty Coordinating Work and Home Life X Dissatisfaction with Amount of Time for Self	.0217	.0828	.371	.0052

Note[1]: These two variable interaction predictor variables were run separately controlling for main effect variables (except when multi-collinearity problems existed).

Note[2]: R^2 in the body of this table is a measure of the additional variance explained by each of the variables.

Table B.15: Composite' Multiple Regression Table of Individual Dissatisfaction Variables as Related to the Frequency of Paternal Physically Aggressive Discipline.

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Age of Youngest Child X Dissatisfaction with Health	-.0108	-.2160	2.008	.0457
Age of Youngest Child X Lack of a Feeling of Well-Being	.0051	.1909	.839	.0202
Age of Youngest Child X Difficulty Coordinating Work and Home Life	-	-	-	-
Age of Youngest Child X Dissatisfaction with Amount of Time for Self	-.0100	-.1713	.777	.0068
Dissatisfaction with Health X Lack of a Feeling of Well-Being	.0420	.1672	1.060	.1224
Dissatisfacion with Health X Difficulty Coordinating Work and Home Life	.0262	.0932	.495	.0053
Dissatisfacion with Health X Dissatisfaction with Amount of Time for Self	.0097	.0247	.024	.0005
Lack of a Feeling of Well-Being X Difficulty Coordinating Work and Home Life	-	-	-	-
Lack of a Feeling of Well-Being X Dissatisfaction with Amount of Time for Self	.0376	.2449	2.695	.0597

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Difficulty Coordinating Work and Home Life X Dissatisfaction with Amount of Time for Self	.0088	.0510	.189	.0032

Note[1]: These two variable interaction predictor variables were run separately controlling for main effect variables (except when multi-collinearity problems existed).

Note[2]: R^2 in the body of this table is a measure of the additional variance explained by each of the variables.

Table B.16: Composite[1] Multiple Regression Table of Individual Dissatisfaction Variables as Related to the Frequency of Paternal Verbally Aggressive Discipline.

Variables	B	Beta	F	R^2
Dissatisfaction with Health X Lack of a Feeling of Well-Being	.0298	.1172	.468	.0113
Dissatisfacion with Health X Difficulty Coordinating Work and Home Life	-.0157	-.0551	.166	.0023
Dissatisfacion with Health X Dissatisfaction with Amount of Time for Self	.0385	.0967	.348	.0120
Lack of a Feeling of Well-Being X Difficulty Coordinating Work and Home Life	.0132	.1490	1.255	.0196
Lack of a Feeling of Well-Being X Dissatisfaction with Amount of Time for Self	.0220	.1554	.905	.0282
Difficulty Coordinating Work and Home Life X Dissatisfaction with Amount of Time for Self	.0165	.0943	.636	.0088

Note[1]: These two variable interaction predictor variables were run separately controlling for main effect variables (except when multi-collinearity problems existed).

Note[2]: R^2 in the body of this table is a measure of the additional variance explained by each of the variables.

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